

**Action
for Curriculum
Improvement**

1951 Yearbook

**Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development**

Action

for Curriculum
Improvement

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ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

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Preface

THIS BOOK is the action story of pupils, teachers, supervisors, administrators, parents and other citizens working together for better educational programs and better communities. It presents the forward-looking principles and practices of curriculum improvement now being developed in American schools. The book deals also with the "growing edges"—the frontiers of curriculum planning and improvement in a complex and changing world. It provides a realistic assessment of curriculum improvement in action and a look ahead.

All who are concerned with developing a dynamic curriculum in American schools will find the book helpful. Classroom teachers in elementary schools, high schools and colleges will appreciate the illustrations of tested practice and the guiding principles for curriculum improvement. School administrators and those in supervisory positions will receive new insights regarding their leadership roles. Curriculum specialists and members of curriculum committees will benefit from the specific suggestions and the sound philosophy of curriculum development. Colleges and universities will find the volume useful in connection with both their pre-service and in-service programs. The book also may well serve as a text or basic reference in graduate courses in school administration, supervision and curriculum development.

The Yearbook Committee has worked for three years recording suggestions of members at national conferences, discovering illustrations of curriculum practice, agreeing upon procedures and principles of curriculum improvement, and writing the book. Teams of committee members took responsibility for collecting materials and for developing the several sections.

The finished book is the result of cooperation by hundreds of ASCD members who provided suggestions, criticisms and materials. It is the product of cooperative thinking and action, since the committee as a whole in lengthy sessions arrived at consensus on the purposes of the book, the cooperative procedures to be used in its development, and the content to be emphasized in the several sections.

The co-editors express gratitude and appreciation to all those who contributed ideas and materials for the book. We are especially grateful to members of the committee, who have given generously of their time and talents in producing this publication for the Association.

The cover and title page of this book were designed by Arsenne Trebor. Special recognition is due the following for final editing of the book and for seeing it through the several stages of publication: Arno A. Bellack, executive secretary of ASCD, Robert R. Leeper, associate editor of *Educational Leadership*, and Mary C. Griffiths and Florence Ryan, assistants, of the Washington staff; and Lina Willis of the Division of Publications, NEA.

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From the Association

ACTION FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT, the ASCD 1951 Yearbook, reflects the firsthand experience of many persons who appropriately may be considered pioneers in the frontier work of improving our schools. Accounts of their efforts as individuals and as cooperating group members will give readers a view of what is accomplished in a creative, on-going adventure in educational progress.

This book represents the teamwork of ASCD members. It sets forth the theory, practice and experience of hundreds of teachers, supervisors, administrators, curriculum directors and other school people. Action reports of the work of these individuals have greatly assisted the 1951 Yearbook Committee in its three-year search for outstanding examples of curriculum improvement programs.

In accepting this yearbook, the Executive Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, expresses thanks to each of the twenty-two members of the 1951 Yearbook Committee. To Walter A. Anderson and to William E. Young, who served as co-chairmen of this committee and who supervised the writing and editing of this book, the Executive Committee extends especial appreciation.

ACTION FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT indicates present conditions which compel adjustment in the school's program, and shows how changes in the program may be indicated; how such programs can be organized; how leadership is developed; and how programs may be evaluated. Further, it furnishes a survey of the frontiers of improved educational practice toward the attainment of which each school person should devote himself wholeheartedly.

The Executive Committee proudly accepts this 1951 Yearbook and commends it to all persons concerned about improving our educational programs of living and learning.

GLADYS L. POTTER, *President*
For the Executive Committee

June 1951

CHAPTER I

A School Program Is People

This story is drawn from observations of school procedures, from interviews with teachers and from results of the authors' own experiences. It is a story of an American teacher and of those with whom she works as they seek to improve the school program and to grow in professional effectiveness.

Her story should help to dramatize the pivotal roles played by teachers, students and others in any program of curriculum improvement. Comments and questions are indicated to help focus attention upon various issues with which this yearbook is concerned, such as: Who participates in a school improvement program? What role does leadership take? What are some of the concepts and purposes of school improvement?

MR. MARTIN frowned as he glanced at the headlines of a newspaper clipping on Miss Butler's desk.

Hoodlums Smash Windows Four Teen-Agers Held

Mr. Martin was a state curriculum coordinator. He had wanted for some time to visit Elm School District. In fact, he had had it in mind ever since he had received a letter from Miss Butler, the local supervisor, more than a year ago. This letter had requested information about school-community projects which were going on throughout the state. From time to time, he had received other letters of inquiry from teachers and students in Elm School. He had felt that this school system was really doing something worth while with and for its young people. But sight of the newspaper clipping made him wonder about this. Apparently the school still had a long way to go.

As a coordinator, Mr. Martin gave assistance to schools throughout the state in developing in-service education programs. He helped schools set up summer workshops. Frequently he

arranged for resource people to meet with local school systems in working on problems.

Elm School District, however, during the past year had called on him only for very specific information. He still hoped that this meant that their in-service program had now become such an integral part of the total school-community effort that little outside help had been needed.(1) All this was in his thinking as he greeted Miss Butler.

"I see Elm School District is having some trouble," he said, as Miss Butler hurried into the office.

"Oh, Mr. Martin," she laughed, "that clipping is two years old. I keep it on my desk to remind me how things were when we started." As she handed him the morning paper, she added, "Today's headlines look quite different."

Youth Center Plans Completed

Students Clear Ground

"That's more nearly what I had hoped to find," he said, after a glance at the article. "How about telling me the story that has taken place between these clippings? What are your plans for the near future? I've wondered whether your experience wouldn't be of help in the workshops now being held in other places throughout the state."(2)

"I've meant to write you," said Miss Butler, "about a workshop for our own teachers this summer. But it would have to include half the people, both old and young, in our town.(3) Perhaps the news story will help explain it. But let me start at the beginning.

"You know, we supervisors try to work in this school system much as you do on the state level. We are on call for teachers or committees or whole faculty groups at any time. We also work with continuing committees set up on a city-wide basis;

(1) *In-Service Programs*: Can in-service, as well as summer and pre-service programs, be designed so as to encourage continuing professional development?

(2) *Transfer of Practices*: Reports of practice in other situations can be more effective when they are thoroughly understood and related at a time when they are most needed.

(3) *Workshops*: Are workshops becoming school-community developments? What are best ways to draw teachers, parents and other citizens together to work on mutual jobs?

but the initiative for curriculum effort is in the individual school, and we are always delighted when some real experimentation starts in a single classroom.(4)

"Well, Sue Wilson called me one day a couple of years ago, as a result of an incident which had involved some of her students.(5) The students were all up in the air because the vacant lot which they used as a playground had been fenced in. Sue was actually afraid that they would break windows and terrorize that end of town to get even. She had discussed the problem with them in class when she found out what they were concerned about.(6)

"Students quoted their parents, too, as saying they thought the whole town was run by politicians who did not really care what happened to people. After a long discussion, they asked her why the teachers didn't do something to help them.(7) Sue doubted her ability to do anything more about the politicians than the parents had already done. But she was willing to give it a try, for she didn't want to disappoint the students. They wanted so much to believe their teachers were really concerned and would be willing to help.

"So Sue Wilson went to her principal with the story. They considered presenting the problem to the faculty, but finally decided against this procedure. The principal suggested, instead, that Sue talk over with me the various possibilities for action before the class members consulted anyone else.

(4) *Ideas from the Grass Roots:* Is the school improvement program not the sum total of the efforts and experimentation of individual teachers in classrooms of the local schools? How can such efforts be related in an increasingly integrated program?

(5) *The Job of Supervisor:* How does the supervisor work with teachers and principals? Does the state supervisor feel free to visit a local school? Is the teacher encouraged to take initiative and then, if necessary, call upon his principal, supervisor and other resource persons to advise him in doing the job?

(6) *Stimulus for Action:* Stimulus for program improvement lies at the point of program operation; that is, where teachers and children are working together on recognized needs and problems. How can we be flexible and resourceful enough to bring the most effective help to bear upon meeting these needs and solving these problems?

(7) *Initiating Improvement:* Can teachers initiate genuine learning situations? Program improvement seems to come about in interaction among people. It is difficult to determine, however, whether such improvement is purely accidental or the result of pre-planned blueprinting.

"This was the opportunity of a lifetime. We had talked about beginning with children, about the importance of their problems. We had held child-study groups all over the place. We'd advocated the experience curriculum, too, in which students list their problems and then dig in. But somehow we hadn't really had a spark like this. The class always came out studying a 'topic,' such as transportation, instead of a 'problem.' Sue and I both realized that now we had a *real problem*, and we hoped we would be wise enough to know what to do with it.(8)

"I visited Sue's class the next day. We suggested to the students that if they really wanted help from teachers, parents or anyone else, they had better consider the whole situation and develop an over-all plan.(9)

"As usual, the kids were wonderful. Somehow, you can always count on the boys and girls.(10) They told how adults chased them away every time they found a place where they could play. They said it was worse for their little brothers and sisters because the older kids chased them away.

"As a result, they decided that before they could do anything else, they ought to gather all the facts they could about the places where children could play and the opportunities which were available. They planned a questionnaire which they distributed to every child of school age in town. They went to the parochial as well as the public schools, and to the elementary as well as the high schools.(11)

"It was about this time that I sent you that frantic appeal for help. Students wanted to know what was going on elsewhere in the state. Sue combed through her back copies of *Educational Leadership*, the *NEA Journal*, and *Childhood Education*, as

(8) *Flexibility in Approaching Problems*: Our generalized approach to work on problems usually forces us to a topical or large unit organization. Teachers need to be sufficiently flexible so that they can take time to listen to students and follow up on leads.

(9) *Supporting the Teachers*: How can the teacher, principal and supervisor evolve a working pattern that will encourage the sharing of competencies, that will free each from the deference to authority which is so prevalent in line and staff organization?

(10) *Pupils Are People*: Is it difficult for adults to view problems of students as having the stature and significance that adult concerns have to us?

(11) *Cooperation Among Schools*: Initiative taken by these students provided a natural basis for cooperation among schools. Should it not be possible to arrive at more continuous cooperation among schools?

well as through her notes from summer school, to learn which school systems throughout the country had worked on similar problems.(12)

"Between us, we had a good many resources to which students could turn. Then, of course, they turned up a lot of others which they had heard about from their sisters and their cousins and their aunts or from their radios or their popular magazines. They sent letters all over the country asking what other communities had done. Of course some of their letters didn't bring answers, but many of them did, and many suggestions were really useful. They used all the reference books they could find about recreation too. They not only dug up all the books in the school libraries, but they emptied the shelves of the public library. And they built their own pamphlet collection.

"But still the students didn't think this was enough. They decided that if they were really going to find how things stood, they should make a map of all the public and private recreation facilities in the town, and indicate what age groups were served by them.(13) We weren't sure this was a good idea, but the students were so certain that young people were getting a raw deal that they insisted on going ahead with a study of the total recreation pattern of the community.

"Actually, this was all to the good.(14) As students began to list community centers, they visited these centers and talked with the people who were in charge. The same thing happened in the different churches. Then the students decided to canvass the service clubs in town to see what they were doing about recreation for various groups. The Rotary Club, for example, has been sending boys away to camp and Zonta has done the same thing for girls. An important thing happened when the youngsters discovered that almost every service center, almost

(12) *Function of the Teacher:* When teachers become *aides* and *resource persons*, should they not have less responsibility for setting up tasks and more for helping marshal experience, offering leads as to other resources, and helping interpret evidence?

(13) *Teaching Skills:* Is there some way to make clearer, through actual use, how skills of interviewing, writing, planning, organizing, interpreting data, etc., are indispensable to an active program?

(14) *Adjusting Institutional Patterns:* If school programs are to benefit, won't we have to find ways to free ourselves from institutional patterns that discourage innovation? Somehow we have to bring about change which is understood, which modifies public and professional expectations, and yet which does not precipitate regressive activity.

every church, and many other organizations, such as the PTA, were now providing or planning to develop recreation opportunities for boys and girls. But no one organization knew what any other organization's plans were. The difficulty, they discovered, was that the various groups did not coordinate the planning of their programs.

"The new school being built on Pine Street, for example, was to have a large play space. There were four small baseball diamonds, an outdoor basketball court, a handball court and several other arrangements for sports. But the community center only four blocks away had also purchased land recently and had made almost identical plans for setting it up as play space. Then it was discovered that this school and a neighboring school opened their gyms on the same night, while neither of these two schools had its gym open on any other night of the week. If representatives from all these groups would only get together, the boys and girls kept saying, they could work out a plan that would take care of everyone." (15)

At this point, Mr. Martin interrupted. "I suspect, Miss Butler, that you are so enthusiastic about what Miss Wilson did that you have forgotten some of the difficulties. I wonder if it looked as simple to Miss Wilson as you make it sound?"

Miss Butler laughed. "I'm afraid I'll have to plead guilty to that," she said. "Sue Wilson is wonderful, but there were times when I think she was ready to quit her job. You know, it isn't easy to follow the development of a problem when all you've been accustomed to following is a textbook. Sue's main trouble was that she couldn't see where it was all going to come out. (16) And then there were the mistakes she made. I should have been

(15) *Resource Persons*: Increasingly, teachers and supervisors serve as resource persons in classroom and school. Community representatives also are more often being turned to for the special assistance they can provide school improvement programs. How can adult citizens work with students so that resources can be shared wisely and so that problems and responsibilities can be known and understood?

(16) *The Place of Goals*: Do purposes clearly defined in advance tend to limit flexibility and result in narrower experiences for teachers and students? How can we know within ourselves and help others know that in dealing with social and human problems we do not begin with outcomes? How can we better clarify the values which underlie our choices, and become better able to deal with problems in terms of the continuity of these values? The inductive approach, scientific method, processes of social investigation, and cooperative planning call for analysis of data as it is gathered, and result in discovery of next steps, as each step is taken.

wise enough to help her avoid them, but I couldn't foresee all of them in time, so we made mistakes together.

"In the first place, we made the mistake of not planning from the very beginning with parents. We were feeling our own way. Students were acting on a wave of enthusiasm, and we just didn't think about needing to bring parents along with our thinking. So it wasn't very long until parents began to complain that students were out all over town instead of in school learning something. We talked that over with the students, and had an evening meeting with parents of the group. It would have been much better if we had done this at the beginning, but even now this joint planning helped a great deal.(17)

"Then the other teachers began to complain. Students shouldn't be out of class. They thought students weren't doing the work that would prepare them for future courses. They wouldn't be prepared for college entrance. Of course, considerable trouble came following an instance when two groups became so much interested in the program of work going on at one of the social agencies that they just didn't return to school. The fact that they had gathered very worth-while information and had had a marvelous experience in learning about the work of our largest social center didn't make any difference. They had missed their *regular* classwork.(18)

"Sue handled this problem very intelligently. She spent much time helping the students develop the point of view that special privilege carries with it special responsibility. She worked with the students, then, on the basis that they were conspicuous because of the unusual type of program which they were developing. Every transgression, therefore, loomed large in the eyes of other students and teachers. Since the students had already felt the sting of this truth, they set about making plans to be conspicuous in constructive ways.

(17) *Participation in Initial Planning*: How can everyone affected by policies be effectively involved in formulating them? Are existing organizations adequate channels of communication? Can a school PTA, for example, modify itself so that a planning group of parents may be working cooperatively with teachers and students at the very outset of a school improvement program?

(18) *Professional Conservatism*: Have institutional patterns conditioned us to professional conservatism? For example, have we accepted the academic assumption that the best learning takes place in the classroom? How can we help ourselves and others learn to recognize and respect motivations that lead students to inquire, to set up plans, to move into action?

"But Sue didn't leave it all up to the students.(19) She gave them active support. She felt that the whole study would be strengthened if she could start a group of teachers working with her. So she persuaded Ellen James, the English teacher who had the same students, to work with them on their letters and their interviews. Then she asked Gordon McNeif, the math teacher, to help them with the projection of the map. These teachers became so much interested that they began to plan and work with Sue. They even began to use many of their own class periods for work on the project. I met with the group of teachers sometimes, and they were deeply absorbed in the program.

"Sue also made a point of following students' progress by conferring periodically with their other teachers. In this way she learned that other staff members, too, recognized the difference the study seemed to be making in the growth of the boys and girls. Some admitted improvement only grudgingly, but attributed it to the efforts the students themselves were making. Improvement was everywhere recognizable.(20)

"We almost got into trouble with the students themselves at the end of the semester. We had to give grades, and this reminded them that they faced college exams and many other kinds of experiences off in the dim future. 'When will we learn anything?' they asked. This drive to 'learn something' couldn't be ignored. It had to be faced squarely in an undertaking so different from the usual routine as our program happened to be.(21)

(19) *Group Processes*: This instance represents an application of very basic group dynamics. This teacher was not alone in dealing with the problems of human relations. Bettering these relations had become a group concern.

(20) *Involving Groups of Teachers*: How can we help teachers discover the advantages of sharing competencies and find the security of working together? Innovations, improved relationships among themselves and with parents, are so much easier when teachers are accustomed to thinking together about common problems. Can the principal, department head, or supervisor help teachers achieve early faculty commitment to modified approaches? Perhaps the established program has bottlenecks such as department tests, teacher rating, achievement promotion policies, or formal departmental and faculty meetings.

(21) *Expectations*: How can we use student expectations constructively in program improvement? Expectations of parents, teachers and other adults converge upon students and greatly influence what they think "ought" to be. We need to reduce the hazard of setting up too many contradictory "oughts."

"But we finally got through our first battery of troubles. We put together the material from the surveys and interviews, and then had to admit that we had gone as far as we could without calling for help. But how should we go about requesting such assistance?

"Again the students came to the rescue by proposing that the student council be brought in. 'After all,' they said, 'Mr. Thomas said we should do what we could ourselves before going to the faculty. We should consult our own student organization before we bring in any others.'

"I wish you could have visited Sue's class while this was going on. I got over there as often as I could, and I did wish that we could get tape recordings of the discussions that went into the various plans and decisions. The encouraging thing about it was that Sue helped the youngsters think through their problems instead of being overly eager to give them the answers. When they made a poor decision, such as staying out all day and missing their other classes, she didn't scold or punish them. She did, however, help them face the problem and work out a way of doing something about it. Her comments in class were nearly all questions which sought out the reasons for opinions or ideas or pushed ahead into the consequences of choices they were considering. I noticed, too, that although Sue made suggestions about people whom they might interview or about ways by which they might present their materials, she never pressed her point or insisted that it be done her way. It was a joy to watch her work with the students. She really guided, instead of pushing or talking them to death.(22)

"There were a couple of student council representatives in the group who said they would present the survey to the council.(23) The big questions were these: How should the problem be presented to the council and what help could the council give them? They decided to show the map and then to present the questionnaire results in the form of three pictograph charts. These charts presented the questions which had been

(22) *Values and Procedures:* How can we develop methods and processes that exemplify democratic values? Supervisors face their most baffling problems on the "how" level, rather than on the "what" level.

(23) *Channels:* How can we help those who undertake modification to understand and respect channels of communication and action? How can we help those concerned examine the effect of channels on initiative? How can we involve those who might feel "put on the spot" as program change is undertaken?

of greatest concern to the students. One chart applied to elementary school children, one to junior high-school, and one to senior high-school students. They showed the three major types of recreation of each group. Then they indicated the three top items wanted by each. For example, first-graders wanted sand-boxes and playhouses. Junior high children wanted a place where they could swim. Senior high boys and girls wanted tennis courts and a club house where they could get together in the evening.

"Other requests were then presented. Adults as well as students wanted to have a place where families could do things together. Even in sections of town supplied with parks, there was dissatisfaction concerning their use. There seemed to be so few ways in which the parks could really be used by groups simply for fun. One suggestion was for the building of a square-dance platform. Another was that outdoor picnic grills should be constructed in small neighborhood parks throughout the town. The class had grouped these expressed needs into several categories: those which could be worked on without a large fund; those which required fund-raising but which could probably be carried on in the near future; and those which would require a long-term financial program.

"The student council was so favorably impressed with the group's work that it almost took the program away from the class. The council suggested presenting the report to the all-city student council, to the council of parochial schools, and to the city parent-teachers organization.

"Students in the class resisted this suggestion. They thought findings of the survey should first be made known to the teachers and parents in their own school. As a result, the students finally decided to present the findings to the faculty of the school, the school PTA, and then to the all-city student council. Another thing which the council decided should receive emphasis in the report to the all-city student council was the adverse criticism the group had received from businessmen in the neighborhood of the schools. Many of them had criticized the schools and referred to the school children as irresponsible, careless, destructive of property. The students put this type of criticism high on the list of problems to be worked on immediately."

Mr. Martin interrupted, "Just a minute, Miss Butler; you sound as if any idea the students had was accepted. Is this true? Weren't the students ever aware that at any moment someone

could pour cold water on all their plans and send them back to studying civics from the book?"(24)

"They certainly were aware of it, Mr. Martin. There was never a discussion in which they didn't bring up that worry. This was also partly the reason why Sue worried about the whole matter. I must confess that I got a few gray hairs myself. There were just two things that kept us going in spite of that worry. One was that the students were so level-headed about it. They didn't suggest any plan without considering who would be interested, who would be affected, and whether or not the plan was feasible. When they were ready to present the plan to anyone outside the class, they tried to think how the person to whom the problem was being presented could be brought into its solution. I don't believe the students ever presented any demands to anyone. They presented problems and invited help in their solution.

"The other thing that kept us going was the fact that the class from the very beginning really set itself up as a listening post. The plans they made were plans for finding out what others were thinking. This meant that any plans they suggested came not just from their own members but also from others.(25)

"Of course, Mr. Thomas, the principal, was of great help during this program. He encouraged the whole enterprise. The class kept him informed of every step along the way and he dropped in often to see what was going on. He helped work out administrative problems and backed the students at every point when they might have become discouraged. If he hadn't been active, I'm not sure that Sue would have felt that she could go on.(26)

"Presentation to the faculty was really the stiffest challenge

(24) *Freedom To Fail*: Established authority *does* make it easily possible to nip developments in the bud. But the idea that initiative for program improvement should reside in the individual school and classroom means, among other things, that persons must be free to experiment, to attempt, to succeed, to fail.

(25) *Reports*: A fundamental principle of sharing was involved in such reports. Students apparently gave reports not just as ends in themselves, but as means of helping interested listeners find their places in next steps.

(26) *Administrators as Cooperators*: Can the department head, supervisor, or administrator "find time" to work along with teachers and students? He must if he is to re-interpret his role, traditionally looked upon as that of inspector. The shadow of authority may constitute a major barrier to program improvement.

of the whole study. We had already encountered some faculty opposition, which I have described. There was the additional fact that the students had never previously in the history of the school appeared at a faculty meeting. Ideas had always gone from the faculty to the students, not the other way around. You can count on parents and out-of-school adults being impressed by students' ideas, but a faculty group often looks upon presentation of such ideas as presumptuous. This faculty meeting was no exception. But I will say this, there was never a livelier faculty meeting than the one which followed the class presentation.

"The class presented much the same material they had used before the council. Then the council members added some proposals for an immediate all-school attack on problems raised. They suggested a 'be kind to your neighbors' campaign to counteract the poor impression that businessmen in the neighborhood had of the students. This suggestion met with unanimous approval. But council members suggested also that the classes in social studies, science, and English unite in an effort to get ten vacant lots in the local school district set up for play purposes. Some were to be set up for younger children, and some for older boys and girls. One lot was to be set up as a family recreation spot. This campaign would mean getting permission from the owners to use the lots, clearing the lots of rubbish, leveling them off, and getting the minimum equipment needed.

"This proposal put the faculty in an uproar. This was a job for the city. The school couldn't do everything. Wouldn't there be students who would use this as an excuse to get out of school? How could classes cover the course of study if they were out of school all the time? Many objections of this sort were raised, but the students had anticipated most of these. They pointed out that calling on the owners required the best public speaking exercises that could be devised. Inquiring from city officials about regulations would be a good civics lesson. Testing the soil and landscaping some of the plots would make these into a perfect laboratory for science. Students even suggested that the actual manual labor might be credited as physical education.

"Actually, a number of the teachers already were eager to help on the project and considered learnings to be gained from the undertaking more valuable than those to be gained by staying in the classroom at school. But it took more than one faculty

meeting to reach a final decision, and often the talk at the lunch tables was heated beyond the normal temperature.(27)

"I don't know whether the faculty would have approved the plans if the parents hadn't been so keenly enthusiastic when the class went to the PTA. Of course some parents had already been in the class as resource people. Again, the students made proposals for action, this time suggesting that the local PTA take the plan to the city group, and that the parents take an active part in planning and carrying out the work for the ten lots. They talked about work days when families would picnic and work together.(28) The plan was practically under way when the meeting was over.

"I think it was the news story describing this meeting that really put things on an all-community basis. After the morning paper came out, Mr. Thomas received calls from several of the other PTA groups, and from almost every service club in town. Presidents of the Chamber of Commerce, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the League of Women Voters, Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, and Optimists wanted to know more about the project and asked if the students would present it to their groups.(29)

"Mr. Thomas was well pleased, and when inquiries kept coming in, he called a special faculty meeting and presented to its members a suggestion, which they approved, for holding an open meeting for the community at which the students could present their findings. Splendid newspaper publicity was given the meeting, and the students sent special invitations to every organized group with which they had had contact. When the meeting came to order, there was standing room only. Everyone had ideas and everyone was enthusiastic. Before we knew quite what had happened a permanent organization called the Forum had been set up. Working out the details so that it would function, however, was quite a problem. It was essential

(27) *Comprehensive Programs*: How can school improvement programs become comprehensive? Can we learn to think together to develop programs which cross elementary and secondary school lines, and which involve teams of children and teachers, not necessarily grades or departments?

(28) *Students and Parents*: As students begin to engage actively in the work of community improvement, teachers and parents may find it easier to work cooperatively with them.

(29) *School and Community*: Is school program improvement also community improvement? Such a project as this should bring about substantial and continuing program change.

for every group to maintain its own integrity, but for all groups to work at fitting their plans together." (30)

"How long did it take to work out the organization?" Mr. Martin asked.

"It was fairly well developed by the third meeting, but we still hit snags. We wanted to include children of all ages. Many adults thought it couldn't be done. But children were included, and even the first-grade pupils work on plans that will affect them. They work through the student council and help initiate work as well as plan it. These plans are taken up first at every meeting so that the youngsters can leave by bed time.

"We also had to get service clubs to cooperate instead of compete with one another. Now when jobs to be done are outlined, the clubs become committees to carry out responsibilities for the larger group. If they initiate an idea, they work on it. Churches and social agencies, too, do their part. The scope now is much wider than just recreation. For example, one social agency conducts a class one day a week for expectant mothers, while the senior home economics group at the high school takes care of small children in another room. This arrangement frees the mothers, gives them a chance to learn, and also helps the girls learn about child care through real experience. This is only one of many activities which have grown up through the Forum. Whoever has a problem presents it, and a committee or an already organized group goes to work on it.

"That sounds simple, but it is really quite complicated. So far, only a few members have monopolized group time to fuss about some personal matter of no consequence to the larger membership. As soon as the Forum was organized other kinds of community problems were brought up. We continue to work on recreation, but we work on other things too. Students take an active part on all committees. We have a small group of town people who object to the use of school time for some of the projects. Actually, almost all the teachers and an overwhelming majority of parents and businessmen think the program a vast improvement. A few of those who do not agree, however, rise at least at every other meeting to propose that the schools be

(30) *Training for Community Leadership*: Who, of the school staff, has training for helping community groups move toward community organization? Should the school program include definite provision for community coordination? If this is not the school's business, what role should the school assume relative to these developments?

investigated for dealing with 'frivolous and non-school matters.' They even make similar appeals to the Board of Education. A committee has been appointed to study what should be included in the school program, but its investigation doesn't move fast enough to suit this group. On the whole, however, we've used the system of clearing every suggestion by appointing a committee to consider it and report. This means that many people are involved and that everyone knows that his suggestions will be considered." (31)

"What has happened to your in-service program?" asked Mr. Martin.

"Our faculty study groups this year have all grown out of our interest in the Forum. We've gone to the state university for help on several occasions. For example, at our request the university has scheduled a course this term on 'Community Resources.' This course is offered in the department of educational sociology in which a group of teachers is making a study of our community. Then, too, we asked the university to set up a course in 'Problem-Centered Teaching' and we have an arrangement for the use of some university staff members as consultants on some of our problems and the use of their students as internes in some schools. Now we're beginning to plan for the summer workshop and then we hope to have a winter workshop attended by teams of teachers and their principals next year. It will include all kinds of problems in which both teachers and other community members are interested. We're really excited about this development." (32)

Mr. Martin sighed. He was starting out to develop summer workshops in central locations where a few of the interested teachers from various schools could get together on their problems. But there wouldn't be a group of cooperating schools

(31) *Wider Programs for Schools*: How can schools help their communities develop adequate avenues through which community opinion may be expressed? How can all groups in our communities make their concerns known and come together to work toward solution of their common problems?

(32) *Institutions of Higher Learning and State Departments*: Are institutions of higher learning and state departments ready to serve as resources on call from communities? Can institutional patterns be modified so that service to communities can be rendered in the form needed? Perhaps such service will take the form of consultations. In whatever form their help may be rendered, however, persons in institutions of higher learning and in state departments must become more and more alert to local service needs and to the concerns expressed in schools and communities.

with a team of teachers from each building and there wouldn't be social workers or sanitarians or parents or members of the League of Women Voters. Far more likely, his summer workshops would be attended by teachers who would simply worry with other teachers about what goes on only within the school building. Of course, Sue Wilson had been one of those teachers for the past three summers. And maybe attendance by such experienced individuals did help. Mr. Thomas, too, had attended. But nothing constructive had really happened until people in their own situations had begun to work together on common problems.

He started suddenly, realizing that Miss Butler was watching him quizzically. "Thank you, Miss Butler," he said. "In-service education certainly would be a lot simpler if other schools would begin to work on actual problems. You make me wish that I could be back in a local school system." (33)

"And when I talk to Sue Wilson," said Miss Butler, "I wish I were back in the classroom."

And here the narrative ends. But some of us are not in the classroom, and have little chance to get back to it. It is no wonder, however, that we all speak wistfully about program improvement. In earlier days we used to say that the purpose of supervision is to improve instruction, but that phrase implies that supervisors are remote from day-by-day interaction with students. "A school program is *people*, it is not paper," says J. W. Menge of Wayne University. And since it is people, then program improvement efforts should be directed toward helping people to grow and to exercise creative ingenuity.

In this story we have seen leadership expressed as a function of *all* persons concerned in a program, not just of those in staff positions. The focus was placed on a condition of living involving children, then parents, and then the whole community—and not on a small segment of some course of study. A teacher was encouraged and supported in the exercise of professional skill and judgment, and not limited to the exercise of only

(33) Initiative for undertaking program change apparently comes as an outgrowth of many relationships. This initiative does not always originate with one individual. But each person, especially the administrator, department head, or supervisor, should exert every effort to create an atmosphere in which initiative may be exercised by those who can find the courage to undertake program modification. Such initiative is more likely to arise when communication is easy, when channels are somewhat flexible, and when there is a sense of shared responsibility and shared resources.

technical skill in doing what others planned for her. Children and youth shared in the choice of experiences affecting their own lives and those of other citizens. Staff members from the state department and the university were called upon to share in working directly on problems rather than appealed to for rulings, for instructions, or for compilation of data only remotely related to the problems.

The job, then, is to give people who are working directly with children and youth as much encouragement, assistance and support as they need to keep moving ahead.



This story of a school improvement program has emphasized the importance of good relationships among people in carrying forward such a cooperative effort. Though hypothetical, the story of Sue Williams is based on actual practice, and in it we find emerging some principles for bettering human relations in curriculum development.

1. Contributions to school program development can come from many persons concerned in the program. Pupils, teachers, administrators, supervisors, consultants from state departments, universities and colleges, parents and other adults, represent rich potential resources.
2. In-service education programs should center on the problems, concerns and interests of those who participate in such programs.
3. Opportunities for people to share and to discuss their procedures, problems and achievements in informal situations such as workshops foster and encourage curriculum improvement.
4. The individual school group, including pupils, teachers, principal and laymen, is the basic unit for curriculum development.
5. The relationship of the local and state curriculum specialist and supervisor to the individual school group should be that of consultant, guide and helper.
6. Program improvement actually takes place in the school and the classroom where the pupils and teachers are.
7. Problems that pupils feel deeply are the foundations for learning experiences and curriculum content.
8. Cooperation of children, youth and adults in planning and carrying out real studies and community service activities promises effective and wholesome learning.

9. The ideal role of the teacher is that of guide, aide and resource person. His privilege is to arrange opportunities so that pupils may learn to think, plan and act intelligently and cooperatively upon problems, of common concern.

10. School administrators also are resource persons available to the class group. Their main role is to give encouragement, guidance and support. They are in positions which can facilitate the obtaining of needed equipment, services and supplies, the providing of flexible administrative and organizational arrangements, and the interpreting of the school program to the public.

11. Laymen should be partners in both the planning and the operation of the curriculum improvement program. Citizens with competencies in special areas have been perhaps the resource most generally neglected by schools.

12. Democratic group processes in the classroom, in the school faculty, with community adults, and on a system-wide basis, are the keys to improved human relations and improved school programs.

13. Community-centered educational programs guarantee to pupils vital learning experiences, and promise the development of sound character and wholesome citizenship.

14. Curriculum improvement is an outgrowth of many human relationships. Its success depends upon the intelligent and effective planning and actions of many people.

CHAPTER II

Conditions Compelling Curriculum Change

WHETHER change in curriculum is needed from time to time depends upon what we ask of education. If our instructional program is to consist only of knowledge that is of tested worth to man everywhere, little reason exists for changing the program except as some new knowledge proves itself worthier than some older knowledge. In such case, curriculums in India, France, the United States, and Chile would be almost identical because all persons seeking to be educated would be trying to acquire this worth-while knowledge.

But if the school's curriculum is to be derived from an analysis of society and of students' personal-social needs as these are related to broader social problems and conditions, then the curriculum will change as the major currents of society change.

This is the major source of the curriculum for those who believe that education should help people to live better lives and build better societies. For those who take this view, education in 1951 should be different from the education of 1900, primarily because basic conditions have developed which alter the nature of American society.

This mid-century point seems an appropriate time to examine conditions that have been created by technological and social changes to see what implications, if any, they have for changes in education. It is not the purpose here to trace developments of the past half-century in science, in technology, in economics, in government or in social values. Such developments have been documented elsewhere. Rather it is our purpose to distill from these changes the meanings for education. The synthesis which this chapter attempts to present is in the form of a set of *conditions* that have arisen because of these changes in our society. These *conditions* seem to be persistent enough to com-

mand the attention of any who would improve the school curriculum. Descriptions of these conditions and their meanings for education are based on the assumption that the major purpose of education is to induct children and youth into the accepted ways of the culture and to provide them with the insights and skills necessary to improve that culture.

Origins of these conditions are difficult to determine. Some seem to be rooted primarily in technological change; some in changes in our social values and patterns. Actually, all have multiple roots. For purposes of this discussion, however, a selected set of conditions with some of their implications for curriculum change are presented under three headings: (a) conditions closely related to technological development; (b) conditions arising largely out of social change; and (c) conditions bearing directly on the school itself.

Conditions Related to Technological Development

Children and youth increasingly are deprived of a functional participating role in society. Persons have functional participating roles in society when they contribute to the general welfare of smaller and larger groups through the work they do, and when they have a voice in making important decisions that influence the general welfare. Technological developments and accompanying social changes gradually have made youth consumers, in that they depend upon the efforts of others for what they eat, what they wear, what they use for shelter, and what they do for recreation.

In the frontier culture of our earlier history, children and youth could participate and contribute under conditions which gave them a feeling of being a part of things. They worked alongside their parents in providing food, clothing and shelter. They often had important parts in family planning and in carrying out the plans. They also often participated in community projects. Now most American children and youth are denied by law the privilege of working. Reasons for this denial are somewhat defensible: youth would not be safe in a modern factory; and they are not mature enough to carry out the necessary operations of modern production and distribution. Even if they were permitted to work, they usually would not work alongside their parents and would have little to do with planning the work they were doing.

This functional participating role which children and youth once had in our culture served three valuable purposes. It helped out with the family budget. It provided an anchor, an identification, a linkage of children and youth with their society. It gave each young person a real stake in his community and his country. A ten-year-old boy was not "a man without a country"; this was his country and he had a stake in it. He was not just a consumer; he was both a producer and consumer.

As a result of this identification, children and youth exhibited the psychological characteristics of persons who feel they belong to an important group. But perhaps the greatest advantage of this participation was that it provided children and youth with opportunities to learn through experience. Much of their learning in biology, economics, sociology and occupations came about in this way. The school, then, needed only to make them literate so that they could test their experiences with what others had recorded in books.

Children and youth of today largely miss the firsthand experiences that alone can give them a feeling of belonging in all aspects of society. They miss, too, the rich opportunities to learn about the home and community from functional contacts. Satisfactory substitutes for such experiences and opportunities have not as yet found their way widely into the home, the school and the community. Schools, working with other agencies, need to find ways to provide the kind of anchor which family life in earlier times made possible, and the kind of understanding that firsthand experience helps to produce. Children and youth often are insecure and dependent in our society. As they approach adolescence this insecurity and lack of a sense of useful belonging often find expression in resentment. Children and youth today know much but often their knowledge is superficial, not well grounded in reality.

Some schools have been able to provide reasonable equivalents of the experiences of youth so common to earlier generations. Work experience as a part of education in many systems has long been provided. Those responsible for providing work experiences are learning how to relate such a program more closely to the student's other schoolwork and to protect him from possible exploitation by the employer. Teachers in general education are beginning to devise ways of using work experience as a means of learning science, sociology, economics and the like. Other teachers have strengthened this link between youth and

society by bringing young people and adults together to work toward solutions of important community problems. A new city charter, improved zoning, a more adequate water supply, cleaning up a polluted stream, or removing a traffic hazard are examples of accomplishments which may be brought about through cooperative efforts of youth and others in the community. Day-to-day and week-to-week participation by youth in planning their own education should not be overlooked as a means of establishing this needed sense of belonging. Many teachers advocate pupil planning because they see such participation as important in motivation. But the reason here urged for such planning arises from the necessity for giving youth a sense of partnership in one of society's major social institutions, the school.

This needed experience with reality has been provided in part by schools and other community agencies through year-round and summer camps for work, study, recreation and cooperative, responsible group living. Such camps, with varying amounts of work and responsibility for different age groups, may offer one of the school's most promising ways of extending the school year.

In each succeeding generation, more persons work for somebody else. Recently the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that 82 percent of the 60,000,000 now employed in the United States are working for some other person, agency, company or corporation. Factual data are not readily available to show how rapid the movement is in this direction. It seems reasonable to assume, however, that the more highly industrialized our nation becomes, the greater will be the tendency for the many to work under the direction of or in cooperation with the few. Apparently more goods and services can be provided in this way.

This condition in our society should be very significant for education. If each individual had remained self-employed, had never worked for someone else, the management-labor problem would never have developed. Many sociologists consider this one of the most difficult and dangerous of our internal problems. Most literature on this problem to date deals with ways of settling disputes. Only a few experts in the field seem to be dealing with the root causes.

It seems clear, in this connection, that each person needs to see a relationship between his work and the way he and his

family live. Such a relationship was apparently clear to most workers in frontier days, but many present-day workers seem to sense it only vaguely. On the frontier when each man worked for himself he could see a direct relationship between the amount and quality of his work and the welfare of himself and his family. If he sawed two logs he would have twice as many to use on his barn as he would have if he sawed only one. If he built a good fireplace he would be able to keep a good fire going, but if he built a poor fireplace it would not draw. A good shot at a wild animal meant food for the family, a poor shot meant the family went hungry. The relationship was clear. Everyone could see it and it served as a powerful motivating force.

The situation today is quite different for the person who works for somebody else. The amount and quality of his work have little obvious relationship to the way he and his family will live. For one who receives a fixed salary or wage it is difficult to see what difference it makes, in terms of his family's welfare, whether he does a large amount of work of high quality or not. His family will eat as well tomorrow whether he drives 300 rivets or 400 rivets and as far as is obvious to him, the extra work will not increase the likelihood that his son or daughter will be able to go to college five years from now.

Working for somebody else also creates another problem. This one is both psychological and social. In the modern world of production and distribution there is hardly any place for the individualist. There is no place left for a twentieth-century Daniel Boone. Everyone must learn to work as a member of a team or perish.

These two problems that grow out of the condition which will require most persons now going through our schools to work for somebody else have important implications for education.

Education in a frontier non-technical society had little responsibility for helping each individual to understand his social responsibility. No one person could do either much harm or much good as far as society as a whole was concerned. And, conversely, society could do little to help or hinder the individual in achieving security and general well-being. Except for very unusual circumstances each family head was his own policeman, he provided the water and fuel for his own family, he marketed his own products and in many cases he built his own roads.

Education was actually the first great need that forced the individual to consider his social responsibility. It was clearly less necessary then than now for the individual to see the relationship between his individual welfare and the general welfare. The two are now so interwoven that any society whose members refuse to accept large responsibilities for the general welfare of all its members is in danger of breaking down. This principle applies to all aspects of life including relations with minority groups, profits, labor, tariffs, taxes and the like. Perhaps the aspect of living most influenced, however, by the fact that increasing numbers will be working for somebody else is the relationship between the amount and quality of one's work and his own as well as the general welfare.

Unless each individual can be brought to see that in the end he and all other persons suffer if he cheats society, it will be only a matter of time until the major freedoms will be lost. This is to say that a democracy demands a higher level of individual self-discipline and social morality than is essential in an authoritarian form of government.

Perhaps the first and most important thing the school can do to help youth understand that the amount and quality of one's work is related to his welfare is to give youth a partnership role in his own education. Youth should have the privilege of helping to plan what he is to learn, how he is to learn it, and how he can determine whether or how well he has learned it. This privilege should be extended not in order to make school easy or even to make it enjoyable. Rather, its major purpose should be to give youth a first lesson to the effect that one really gets out of life in proportion to what he puts into it. In other words, youth needs to learn that he is working for himself in school and that he cannot expect to get something for nothing. He may find later that when he is seemingly working for someone else he is actually working for himself.

As a part of the curriculum, the school can bring youth into touch with situations outside the school which will help them to understand the relationship of individual effort to general and individual welfare. Investigations into the rate of production of a few industries in relation to total production and prices may serve to sensitize pupils to the relationship of individual effort to general welfare. These investigations should be repeated as often as needed and at appropriate maturity levels. Each pupil may then see how curtailment of production or

service by either management or labor, when multiplied by thousands and millions, finally comes back to the individual in about the same proportion as he has contributed.

Schools also have a heavy social responsibility to help the extreme individualist to learn to work with others. To accomplish this the curriculum can no longer deal with the individual out of relationship to the group. Modern production, distribution, research and services are largely group rather than independent individual functions. The school, therefore, must take responsibility for helping each individual fulfill a satisfactory role in each group in which he finds himself in the school program. This calls for a more perceptive understanding of the nature of individual development and of his relationships in various groups in which he participates. The condition of society which requires people to work together puts a corresponding responsibility on the school to prepare each pupil to assume his role in a group effort.

Edwards and Richey¹ have stated clearly the new relationship between the individual and the general welfare: "The requirements of social technology—the necessity of social policy in community, nation and state are making it essential that education be given a new orientation, a new center of interest." To move in that direction they urge, "In the future, school and college alike will have to give more attention to the education of the citizen, to cultivate in him that breadth and precision of knowledge of the workings of political, economic and social arrangements essential for intelligent participation in policy formation. . . . The fruits of education in the United States have been largely private and personal rather than public and social. The program of education has contributed much to personal culture and prestige, much to professional and vocational efficiency, but far too little to an understanding of the forces that have been transforming the nature of our civilization." They urge the schools to give more attention to the relationship between the individual and the general welfare.

Communication in its various forms has created a delicate balance between regions and peoples. The high degree of specialization in occupations which enables the people of the U.S.A. to drink more coffee than any other people without growing any

¹ Edwards, Newton, and Richey, H. G. *The School in the American Social Order*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1947. p. xi and 880.

of it themselves, is made possible by rapid communication. In turn, the fact that we buy coffee from Brazil makes it necessary that we sell something either to Brazil or to some other country. In another area, the way one nation deals with minority groups, whether these are economic, political, religious or racial in nature, very quickly affects the attitudes of other peoples. The effect may be to influence the manner in which a people or a government will treat minority groups or the effect may be upon the level of international relations. Then, in still another field, the communication of goods and other products of technology can be accomplished much faster than the communication of ideas. Social and moral values, attitudes of class toward class, the educational level of a people, may fall so far short of their technological developments that chaos results. And it is clearly indicated that the increasing interdependence among nations will not permit for very long turmoil in one part of the world and peace in another part. The delicate balance applies also to the area of health. Diseases common to one part of the earth are a threat to all parts.

In previous generations the influence of the behavior of most individuals was largely restricted to their local communities or to the states in which they lived. This situation changed during the early 1900's so that the behavior of individuals has become more and more significant in the welfare of the nation. Now the balance has become so delicate that not only the community, the state and the nation are influenced by the behavior of individuals, but the whole world is increasingly affected by the behavior of more and more individuals. Such a condition makes the United Nations or some other form of world organization indispensable.

Education has to be different in several ways for a people who live in a world in which the balance is so delicate among nations and peoples. It must be different, in the first place, in helping persons who are in school to understand where their personal and national group welfare lies. It is obvious that we cannot for long have material possessions and enjoy liberties that are denied other peoples. This principle applies to privileges exercised by management and labor, to religious and racial groups, to the press, radio and television, and to the use of our national resources. Children and youth can and must be taught, not by preachment but by observation and through use of reliable data, that the things we hold dear in our society

can be had only at the price of putting the long-term general welfare ahead of short-term selfish interests. In the second place, education must be different because of the broadening responsibility of each and every individual to and for other individuals. To illustrate, an impulsive remark dropped in innocence by a member of Congress, a judge or a clergyman may be used in another country to make a point directly opposite to the one it was intended to support.

What a community does about health, a state does about education, or a nation does about currency and trade may contribute to world harmony or to world strife. Education must emphasize the responsibility of all persons in this regard because education is the major agency created by society for the purpose of safeguarding the general welfare. Before communication had created such a delicate balance among regions and peoples, education could neglect this job without serious immediate consequences. Now the situation is different; youth and adults must understand the inevitable relationship between the welfare of one person and an ever-increasing number of other persons, and the school is the agency through which such an understanding can best be accomplished.

Conditions Arising Largely Out of Social Change

Four significant conditions stem largely from the application of science to the production and distribution of goods and services.

Direct and specific moral responsibility is becoming increasingly difficult to assign. How far can the individual be trusted to put the general or group welfare above his own? Will the individual, as a member of a group, accept and carry out assignments which he, as an individual, would not think of doing? In other words, is "moral responsibility" one thing for the individual and another for the group?

Prices of steel and lumber go up; who put them up? Coffee is higher this week than last; who did that? The police raid a hotel in a dry state and find liquor in a locker. No one claims it; who is responsible for its being there? A baseball player distracts the batter but there is nothing in the rules to prevent it; what can be done about it? Responsibility is now often hard to fix, because ours is becoming a society of organizations and groups, whereas it was until recently largely a society of

individuals. Groups act for the individuals that compose them, but the individuals do not accept personal responsibility for the action of the groups.

The dilemma in which society finds itself is that a group-dominated society demands a level of morality for groups comparable with that of individuals. Yet the group-dominated society creates conditions whereby responsibility can be evaded. In the large city an individual can do many things against the general welfare without even his close friends knowing about them. This does not make for the highest degree of morality. The big union or the big corporation which acts in the name of all its members or stockholders may tend to commit the individual to policies which he would be reluctant to approve on an individual basis. Likewise, the clubs or pressure groups to which one belongs doubtless have values in the security they provide but they sometimes make it difficult for the individual to act as a morally responsible person.

To meet this condition, emphasis needs to be placed on group responsibility, and the school should encourage each individual to take a stand in group decisions which involve moral values.

Divisive forces confusing to youth operate on community life in increasing numbers and strength. Soon after formation of the federal union, local, state and sectional interests became evident in the measures that came before Congress for consideration. Sectional interests grew in strength until they all but destroyed the union soon after the middle of the nineteenth century. Technological developments and other forces, however, have tended to reduce differences in interests among people of different sections of the country, until sectional differences are now somewhat minimized.

While unifying factors of American life have increased, a more subtle and perhaps more serious threat has grown up. Community life is more and more affected by forces that do not originate within the community, but rather on the outside. In some respects a social climate of this kind is more difficult to cope with than a situation in which one section of a country is pitted against another.

Just what are some of the forces that tend toward such confusion? Examination of almost any community in America will reveal them. A typical town of five thousand population, for example, will have one or two civic clubs, an American Legion Post, a chamber of commerce, a labor union, four or

more church denominations, Boy Scouts and either Campfire Girls or Girl Scouts and several women's clubs including a WCTU chapter. Many communities have even more organizations. Each of these organizations is operating to some extent under policies established at "national headquarters." One of the first concerns of each is promotion of the accepted national program of the organization of which it is the local unit. Without doubt each makes valuable contributions to the community, but the point to be stressed here is that the total effect on community life has the possibility of being divisive rather than integrative except where initiative and responsibility are assumed on the local level. It is fairly easy, for instance, to find out what the official stand of the American Legion, the labor union, or the Methodist church is on compulsory military training for youth, since each of these organizations has a national policy on this question. But it is difficult, and yet exceedingly important, to find out how any community of five thousand citizens stands on the issue.

Here is a condition which, while relatively new in our society, constitutes for two reasons a growing problem in maintaining our security. In the first place, community life is the heart of American society. Any force which tends to pull the people of the community apart, no matter how laudable the cause, should be questioned. In the second place, the shift is a threat to the general welfare since it induces a cross-fire of special group interests and therefore divides the community. The situation is especially confusing to youth in their search for values.

Adjustment of youth to these forces can best be accomplished by helping them to understand such forces. As youth study current problems and issues, the school should see to it that they learn the stand of each important community organization on each issue and why that organization takes this particular stand. Where the local organization is a "unit" of a larger group, the canvass should include both the national stand and the attitude of the local group toward this stand.

A few communities have become aware of the problem involved and with the help of the schools have set about counteracting its dulling effects upon community life. The major emphasis has been toward setting into motion forces which tend toward tying the community together instead of pulling it apart. Such efforts have taken a variety of forms, but most of them have utilized some characteristics of the community council idea. In

such a council, community needs are brought into focus and the various organizations are invited to contribute to the meeting of these needs. Through a consideration of the needs of the total community in an atmosphere of this type, forces otherwise divisive can become unified in a common effort.

Society tends to become stratified on the basis of age differences, each with its own set of values and purposes, and with little reason or opportunity for one age level to communicate with another. Gunther, in his book, *Inside Latin America*,² asserts that the three conditions essential to development of a democratic society are industrialization, a middle class and education. These three factors are, of course, inter-related. Together they operate to make a democratic society in which fewer class distinctions are possible. At the same time, these factors also help to create conditions that make for age-level stratification. Industrialization, for example, tends to separate father from son. When the father begins to be responsible for a part of a total process in the making or distribution of a product, the son begins to be left behind. Not being able to associate with his father in work, the son turns for companionship to other boys whose fathers are also working in industry. In industry one father associates with other fathers, and at home one boy associates with other boys. Reduced to simplest terms, this is the way industrialization has created age-level stratification. Education has had a similar effect. Children actually live a greater number of waking hours each day with others of their own age than with their parents. It is no wonder, then, that they become interested in others of their own age and tend to get their life values from their playmates.

In discussing this condition, psychologists use the term "peer relationships." In the absence of age-level stratification, the problem of peer relationships would be relatively simple. It has, however, become one of the major problems in rearing children. It affects all institutions, including the home, the church and the school.

In the home, age-level stratification increases the difficulty of unifying the family. In the first place, each member of the family has outside associates who may influence the behavior of the individual more than other members of the family. The

² Gunther, John. *Inside Latin America*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941.

mother associates with other women, the father goes out with other men, the older son has a group of his own age, the younger son a group of his age, and the daughters are matched with others of their own ages. It is therefore more difficult for a family to be unified in its thinking about any problem with all these outside forces playing upon each of its members than it would be if these forces did not operate. In the second place, each member of the family tends to reject other members older or younger than himself. It is not unusual for an older brother to refuse to be seen with his younger sister because of the effect it would have on his standing with his peers. These are only two of the reasons why homes are different now from those which some of us knew in our youth.

This increased stratification of our society into age-level groups calls for some changes in the instructional program. In some respects the effects of this trend are in the direction of disintegration. Schools, however, should attempt to remedy the ill effects of the trend and can create positive techniques for coping with it. One important need in this respect relates to the home. The home needs help in order to maintain a workable degree of unity among its members. Schools, in order to be helpful, must recognize that the home is just as important as ever and that parents are just as genuinely interested as were parents of former generations. The school can help the home by bringing parents into the development of plans for student work and into the planning of educational projects in which youth and adults will be thrown together in the improvement of phases of society in which both age levels are interested.

The home, however, is not the only agency that is affected by stratification. Schools themselves tend to increase and perpetuate stratification. It is unusual for children of all school ages to be found within the same school building. Granted that there may be other good reasons for age groupings, school people must face the fact that the grouping of children into elementary, junior high and senior high schools contributes to stratification. Likewise the tight system of grade levels which prevents children of one grade from associating freely with children of other grades tends to rob them of opportunities for learning the values held by those younger or older than themselves.

Increasingly, low level occupations require higher level education and consequently attain higher social status. In the United

States today there seems to be relatively little danger of educating too many people. Our position in this respect is due primarily to two conditions. In the first place, it is assumed in the United States that everyone will work at something. There is no leisure class. Furthermore, as those occupations requiring a high level of preparation begin to become crowded, the flexibility of our occupational structure makes it possible for well-educated persons to move into other occupations. When large numbers of well-educated persons begin to follow a particular occupation, the status of that occupation rises so that it becomes one of the preferred occupations. Architecture, hotel management and laundering are examples of occupations which have risen in occupational status partly because each became complex in its operation and partly because persons with considerable educational background entered these fields.

The most important point that this condition drives home to teachers is that there is no danger in providing each person with all the formal education he may desire. More education simply raises the status of those who engage in the various occupations and enlarges the potential services which these occupations can render to society. Closely related to the value of education as a means of improving vocational efficiency is the contribution which education may make to community living. When additional education is provided to increasing numbers, the quality of community life over and above vocational efficiency stands to improve.

Conditions Within Education Itself

The curriculum must change because of conditions within education itself. The next three conditions are of this nature. All of them are in some degree related to the developments of our technological society.

Available materials of instruction are increasing at a rapid rate in numbers and in kind. At the turn of the century, materials of instruction were very much limited. A teacher was lucky if each pupil had access to one textbook. Magazines were rarely available and audio-visual aids in the modern sense were unknown. The situation now is quite different. In 1949, 10,892 different book titles and in 1950, 7622 magazines and 13,042 newspapers were published. An increasing number of films, film strips, recordings, models and maps are available to

assist in the instruction of children and youth. While the amount and kind of subject matter have been increasing, the concept of the function and nature of subject matter has been changing also. Subject matter is no longer regarded as solely those materials to be found in books and in laboratories. Anything that helps a person to understand better a problem on which he is working is subject matter to that person at that time. When viewed in this light, the amount and kinds of subject matter are almost limitless.

Teaching with such new tools should surely be different from teaching with those which were available at the turn of the century. It should be regarded as an obsolete practice to teach today with a single textbook. The modern teacher should make the same use of new materials of instruction as the modern physician does of new medicines. The fact that youth has little opportunity to learn by direct participation in the production and distribution of goods makes it all the more necessary for the teacher to use a wide array of resources ranging from textbooks to work experience.

The expanding role of the school has added new functions to the job of the teacher. ✓The accepted role of the teacher in American society has passed through two stages and is now entering a third. The first accepted role was to teach a specific kind and amount of subject matter to a group or groups of children. This role was fairly adequate when children and youth learned outside of school most of the things they needed to know to get along in society. The major reason for having a school was to help pupils to become literate so that they could learn through books those things they were unable to learn through direct experience. The second stage charged the teacher with responsibility for teaching children as persons. Acceptance of this responsibility was brought about largely through the influence of psychologists and the introduction of extra-curricular activities in the schools. Of course the teacher, under this concept, continued to teach subject matter, but he went much beyond that. This concept gave recognition for the first time to the wholeness of learning. The third stage which is just emerging has its roots in the community school concept. It charges the teacher with responsibility for helping both directly and indirectly to improve living in the community in which the school is located. The teacher under this concept teaches subject matter and children, but goes beyond that to

work with the community as a whole in the improvement of living for all in the community.

To contribute effectively to improvement of community living, the teacher must learn to perform three broad functions. The first of these is to teach one or more groups of children. Purposes to be achieved in teaching the children, subject matter to be drawn upon, and methods to be used will be different as the major forces in society described in this chapter change. Knowledge about human development as it increases also will change both the content and method used in teaching a group of children. The second function is to contribute to improvement of the total educational program of the school to which the teacher accepts assignment. To do this the teacher must be a part of a team, each member of which accepts his appropriate share of responsibility for the success of the whole faculty group. The teacher will realize that improvements by him will be relatively ineffective unless other members of the same faculty are making similar improvements. He will recognize that curriculum improvements are unitary in much the same way that learning on the part of pupils is whole. The third function is to work with individuals and groups in the community in efforts to improve community living. This does not mean that the school takes over and reforms the community. It does mean that the school, through its staff and its facilities, should help to make the community sensitive to its needs for improvement, assist in its organization for improvement, and stand ready at all times to help.

If basic improvements are to be made in the curriculum, teachers must understand and accept these broader functions. Acceptance of these newer functions will of course call for a reorganization of the time schedule of each teacher. No person can be expected to do well all of the things associated with performing older functions and at the same time do those things necessary to perform the newer functions. It means a redistribution of time and energy in terms of a new set of values.

Education should utilize the increased qualifications and enhanced abilities of teachers. The education of teachers is changing rapidly. The change is in both kind and amount of preparation which a teacher brings to his job on a given day. An increasing number of teachers hold college degrees. The report of the national survey of teacher education in 1933 revealed that fewer than 11 percent of the elementary school

teachers included in the sample held college degrees. At the same time approximately 65 percent of the secondary school teachers held college degrees. Data for 1947 showed approximately 60 percent of all teachers, including elementary and secondary, held bachelor's degrees or higher qualifications.³ In other words, within a fifteen-year period the level, in terms of college preparation, of all the teaching personnel has been raised almost as high as the level of preparation of secondary school teachers at the beginning of that period.

When teachers, especially elementary school teachers, were trained, not educated, teaching of necessity was largely routine. It was necessary for such teachers to have formulas to follow. The ability of a teacher to plan his own work and modify the plans wisely as new situations arise in working with pupils seems to be based on three major factors: intelligence, experience and education. With the relatively high level of education of teachers now in service it should be possible to make significant changes in the curriculum. This will be done only as appointed leaders provide an educational climate favorable to the full use of the education which teachers now have and create conditions which make it possible and desirable for teachers to learn still more as they work on curriculum problems.

These are *some* of the conditions now existing in the culture that offer directives for curriculum change. They are by no means all that need to be taken into account; rather, they constitute a sampling of what a more thorough analysis of society would doubtless reveal. Each teacher will wish to make his own analysis of conditions which call for curriculum change. The point to be stressed here is that conditions with reference to certain major aspects of society provide the best possible leads for the emphases that should be made by education.

Some conditions that exist are desirable and some undesirable in terms of the expressed values of the American democratic society. Whether a condition constitutes a directive for curriculum change to perpetuate the condition, to reverse it, or to help pupils to adjust to it will have to be determined by the school and community. To illustrate, the condition in which increasing numbers of persons work for somebody else seems to be one of what might be termed inevitable trends. An attempt

³ Chase, Frank S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-Eight State School Systems*. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1949.

through education to reverse the trend might in the first place prove futile, and in the second place might create more problems than it would solve. The curriculum should therefore be changed to help the individual adjust to the condition. The movement in the direction of age-level stratification, on the other hand, appears to be an undesirable condition which could and should be reversed at least in part by changes in education.

These ten conditions point up some of the dynamics which can operate to bring about desirable change in the curriculum. Change in the desirable direction will not come automatically. Changes which are to improve education can come only in an environment favorable to new insights, new attitudes and new skills required to meet changing social and cultural conditions.

Teaching is a very complex process. While it is perfectly correct to say that in the last analysis the teacher determines the curriculum which operates in the classroom, the operation of other influences cannot be ignored. It must be recognized that boards of education, parents and teacher education institutions, public groups and the staff itself, have a lot to do with what the teacher can do and feels free to do. The challenge is twofold: First, the profession itself must respond to the changes necessary to meet new conditions and new responsibilities. Second, the public must come to feel itself an integral part of schools. Out of such feeling will come the community school, a school peculiarly necessary in a democratic society, a school in which teachers are free to teach and children are free to learn.



The necessity for curriculum improvement in today's schools has been analyzed in this chapter. This necessity arises because of conditions brought about by technological developments, international problems, social change and educational progress. Some guiding principles for curriculum improvement may be derived from these conditions:

1. Curriculum programs should be concerned with the improvement of living and learning conditions in the school and in the community of which it is a part.

2. Curriculum planning should be based on the conditions, problems and needs of society, and on the real concerns, problems and interests of pupils.

3. Children and youth need educational programs that give them wholesome participating roles in society. Only through such participation can they learn responsible citizenship.

4. In a technological age when most people work for someone else, it is important that the curriculum emphasize the attitudes and skills of cooperation. Youth should have a partnership role in planning their education.

5. The curriculum must be concerned with the delicate balance between regions and peoples, including education for international understanding and the defense of America and other freedom-loving nations. Rapid communication has brought the peoples of the world into close relationship with one another. This has increased international problems and tensions to a point at which another world war is threatened. But the present situation emphasizes all the more the importance of education in eventually achieving enduring peace.

6. Educational programs should emphasize moral responsibility for one's acts both as an individual and as a member of groups.

7. The curriculum should prepare children and youth for living in a complex and changing world in which there are many divisive and disturbing factors at work.

8. The school curriculum should provide opportunities for children of different age levels to work together, and also for children and adults to be associated in activities of concern to both. The stratification of our society into age groups is a challenge to education.

9. The school program should treat with dignity all worthwhile vocations and services in community life.

10. Demands of society for new educational services and functions have created a need for extending and improving the curriculum.

11. Improved programs of preparation for teachers and school administrators provide educational leadership for improving the curriculum. The curriculum will improve only as the teacher, the administrator, and other staff members improve in understanding, insight and practice.

CHAPTER III

Initiating Curriculum Change

TO MEET the problems posed by our complex culture, schools and school systems need a continuous program of curriculum improvement. The purpose of this chapter is to help schools plan and develop such a program. It analyzes several kinds of changes and suggests ways in which such alterations may result in improvement in the instructional program.

Schools which have developed plans of action for continuous change in the curriculum are apparently in the minority. While some states, counties, cities and villages have well-defined programs for curriculum improvement, the vast majority of our schools and school systems seem to be accomplishing little in this area.

In a recent survey of some thirty school systems representing various types, sizes and geographical locations, two questions were asked: "What kind of curriculum do you envision for your school in the next five years?" and "What plans have been set up to achieve this program?" Answers received indicate that only one school system had formulated a clear picture of what it wanted to achieve and designed a plan of action to achieve it. Other responses showed little concern for stepping up the tempo of curriculum change and in most cases there was complete disregard of the need for any change whatsoever.

Problems in Improving Instructional Programs

Most educators throughout the country are giving lip service to an educational program based upon life experiences, but many seem actually to accomplish little in implementing this significant concept. Why do we resist change? Why are we not more active in planning programs of curriculum improvement?

Traditional Drawbacks to Curriculum Change

Belief in traditional content and approach. Much is said about a curriculum based on the problems and concerns of students. Current practice indicates, however, that we still believe

that facts should be taught regardless of their application to everyday living; that the mind is a storehouse for facts which may be used later as needed; that facts learned in studying American history chronologically will be translated into behavior of effective citizenship; and that facts learned about health will result in desirable health habits and attitudes. In other words, our concept of learning is still largely confined to the acquisition of facts and academic skills.

Failure to recognize need for in-service education. Most educators would agree that pre-service education is but the first step in the development of a successful teacher and that teachers should grow in their work with children until the time of retirement. Even though we express this point of view, there is much to be done in most school systems to provide vital, significant in-service experiences for teachers.

Belief in rugged individualism. In many school systems teachers are given a course of study or a textbook and are expected to work without relation to other teachers or the total program. This procedure is based upon the concept that problems of instruction can best be solved by each teacher individually, rather than through group study, discussion and planning. A coordinated instructional program can be developed only through practices which encourage individual teachers to plan and to work cooperatively with children and with fellow staff members.

Fear of community criticism. Frequently the reason given for the lack of a program for curriculum improvement is that the parents and others in the community will not countenance any change in the instructional program. Many school systems are doing little more than maintaining the status quo because of fear of public reprisals. If no attempt is made to involve the community in curriculum change, there is probably good reason to fear pressures from parents and other laymen. However, if curriculum improvement is conceived as a cooperative project in which all concerned participate, there is little possibility that a program will be sabotaged. Techniques and procedures which call for community participation in curriculum development are discussed later in this chapter.

Choosing the path of least resistance. It is usually an easy matter to maintain the status quo. How often have school administrators and teachers said, "Let's leave well enough alone."

We're not having any trouble the way we are doing things, so why change?" Yes, the easy way out often causes less confusion and less criticism. But what about the children? Will such a point of view help children realize from education the goals which they have a right to achieve? Cooperative curriculum development requires new ways of working and new approaches—both of which demand study and group planning. There is no easy way to curriculum improvement.

Lack of "know-how." Many administrators and teachers understand and believe in the philosophy and objectives of modern education, but are lost when it comes to implementation. Not infrequently innovations are so poorly conceived and planned that they are doomed to failure before they are begun. Careful study of the literature describing situations where experimentation has been carried on successfully, along with a maximum of cooperative planning, usually leads to a plan of action which will result in significant changes in the curriculum.

Satisfaction with a "directives" approach. Some educators seem to believe it is easier to change the curriculum through directives than through democratic procedures. When one realizes that changes in the curriculum involve changes in people it becomes evident that, in the long run, cooperative planning is more certain to produce desirable results. No technique is used more frequently and with less satisfactory results than the method of developing a curriculum improvement program through directives from the central office.

Fear of experimentation. Little change takes place without experimentation. Even though an experiment is well conceived and planned, there is always a possibility that the goals set up for the project may not be achieved. Many educators accept wholeheartedly successful experimentation, but reject and fear any project which fails. Progress often is made through experiments which do not achieve the expected objectives as well as through those which are successful. It is important that teachers and administrators recognize this fact and be willing to accept and profit from both the negative and the positive results.

Ignorance of or indifference to research. It has been said that significant research of seventy-five years ago has not yet been implemented in our school programs. Recent researches are available to all of us and, if used, would bring important changes

in our curriculum. Only because we ignore research are we teaching spelling from "canned" lists, arithmetic through manipulation of abstract numbers, and reading through mechanical methods.

Course Revision as Curriculum Improvement

Because of these many blocks and fears which stand in the way of a productive approach to curriculum improvement, many schools confine their curriculum work to revising courses of study. In this process much of the same content which has been handed down from generation to generation is rearranged, added to and manipulated so that it appears to be different.

Content is assigned to subjects and to grade levels and standards of achievement are determined. Little attention is given to the needs, problems, and concerns of boys and girls or to the democratic processes involved in helping students to meet life situations successfully. The curriculum then becomes static, and education is separated from the stream of life.

Adjusting to Changing Curriculum Goals

The rapidly changing social scene and the many new insights into the nature of learning and human growth and development have made obsolete an education primarily concerned with the acquisition of facts and academic skills. Improvement of education today demands re-thinking and clarification of goals so that a curriculum in harmony with the new developments and insights may be planned. What, then, are the goals of modern education?

Most educators would agree that the major purpose of education is to foster, promote and develop democracy as a way of life. We are living in a democratic society; we believe it offers us the best in living. Since democracy as a way of life is a way of behaving, it follows that the function of the schools is to help boys and girls develop democratic ways of behaving, including attitudes, habits, social skills, ideals, interests and appreciations.

How can we help young people develop desirable behaviors? Although there are a number of methods which may be used, one of the most promising seems to be that of helping boys and girls solve problems which are meaningful and of concern to them. These include personal, social, civic and economic problems.

Thus the curriculum gives students an opportunity to solve life problems cooperatively so that they may develop desirable democratic behaviors. The subject-centered curriculum, with its sequential organization of subject matter arranged primarily for the purpose of memorizing facts is no longer adequate. It must give way to a problem-centered curriculum with an entirely different purpose, that of helping boys and girls to change old behaviors, develop new ones, and fortify those behaviors which lead to improved democratic living. In the new curriculum, learning is evaluated in terms of improved behavior rather than in terms of the number of facts which have been memorized and retained.

The significance of such an approach to curriculum improvement is evident. Identification of the problems that are of concern to young people requires participation of teachers, students, parents and others. The need for unearthing the problems which society is forcing students to face demands a careful study of our social order and new insights into the impact of social progress on daily living. There is a need to discover the kinds of behaviors which may result from the solution of problems—behaviors which further the growth of young people in our democratic society. Since the problems of boys and girls growing up in today's world change, the problem-centered curriculum must be an ever-changing one. Thus the experience-centered curriculum cannot be set down as a course of study but must be developed and continuously revised through the processes of cooperative planning.

Bringing About Needed Changes

An effective plan for curriculum improvement will necessarily involve changes in the experiences and activities which the school makes available to children. If the plan is to succeed, many kinds of changes need to be made: changes in professional staff; in teaching-learning situations; in pupil behavior; in the community; in school organization; in materials; in ways of working together.

Changes in the Professional Staff

One type of change sought through a curriculum improvement program is change in the people engaged in the "curriculum making" process—the teacher, the administrator, the supervisor, the specialist. What we wish are specific changes in adult be-

havior that, in turn, make a difference in the lives of boys and girls. An effective curriculum improvement program strives for changes in human beings even more than changes in the written materials that serve as aids to teaching.

Techniques for Improving Behavior

Skill in cooperative planning. We seek, first of all, the skills of planning together for the good of children and youth. We want teachers who can plan with other teachers; teachers who can plan with pupils; administrators who know how to define problems *with* teachers and seek their solution together; supervisors who have developed to a fine point the skills of working with people; school personnel who have the know-how as well as the courage to plan with parents. This is a fundamental aim of a curriculum improvement program. Its achievement will come about only through planning together, even though the way may be rough at first.

Working together on mutual problems. As teachers work together on problems of mutual concern, significant planning for the experiences of children results. It may be the desire to improve spelling, to seek better ways of reporting to parents, to improve attendance or to select materials in language arts that will develop desirable social attitudes. These are the live "curriculum problems," which are of real significance to the people concerned.

Developing ability to work and play together. The most productive kind of work situation results when people are informal and friendly, know one another well, and can have a good laugh together. People need to plan together to achieve the permissive atmosphere needed in good group processes.

Local workshops, university summer sessions, and regional conferences are including time for relaxation through picnics, square dances, dinners, clam bakes, attendance at the summer theatre, mountain climbs, and other forms of recreation and good times as an *important part* of the program. A county supervisory group, for example, spend a number of days together in the fall at a ranch where they hold a planning conference in a setting in which people can enjoy themselves while working together.

Improving professional attitudes. Out of cooperative decision-making, of learning to know one another as individuals, and of sharing enjoyment and work grow improved attitudes toward

associates. The high-school teacher no longer regards the elementary teacher as "odd"; the supervisor no longer sees his job as "from the top down." Through the spirited discussions of challenging group work, professional people learn how to accept the opinions of others and how to arrive at sound conclusions. Here are some examples of good professional attitudes:

Friendliness and helpfulness toward other staff members.

Good rapport among educational workers: administrators, teachers, supervisors, clerks, custodians.

Willingness to plan with others and to work on over-all problems.

Greater acceptance of children *as they are*.

Continuous study and search for better understanding of the growth and development of children.

Responsibility to the community.

Willingness to examine new ideas.

Experimenting and carrying on action research. In a permissive atmosphere, teachers are not afraid to try new procedures and to develop better ways of working with children. Experimenting with new ideas becomes a cooperative venture when school personnel share in the planning and appraising.

Action research, in which school systems and universities cooperate in a practical type of study in the school situation, has come about through leadership of university staff members who see their research function in school situations with teachers and children, rather than in the laboratory or the "armchair." This type of research helps school people identify and develop action projects based upon problems of teachers and pupils.

Keeping informed on important current affairs and issues and understanding major social changes. A fundamental understanding of democracy is necessary to strengthening and improving the democratic way of life through the school. Teachers who understand that democracy demands active participation and the ability to take responsibility, teachers who themselves are active participants in community affairs will be able to help children develop the necessary attitudes and skills. Such teachers will be more apt to give pupils responsibility, opportunity to make their own rules, and opportunity to govern themselves.

Accepting change of behavior as a goal of education. Curriculum development that concentrates on producing courses of study may result in changes in the sequence of the subject mat-

ter or skills, or in the books used; but it does not necessarily result in change of fundamental point of view of the school staff. Teachers who have used the subject approach to curriculum development will still be likely to use it; the subject matter has merely been revised and reorganized. On the other hand, curriculum development which is focused on understanding children, and the needs and problems of boys and girls, will have a much better chance of developing a point of view which regards change in behavior as the goal of education.

Accomplishing Behavior Change

There is no easy road for bringing about desirable changes in a professional staff nor is there any magic in the process. Much planning, much work, and a good deal of foresight must be present in a situation that produces such changes. There are, however, ways which schools have found useful in attaining these goals. Some of these ways already have been referred to and are illustrated in the examples at the end of this section.

Workshops where teachers, supervisors, and administrators work together on planning for school improvement. Workshops have been very effective in assisting teachers in improving their practices in the classroom. Many school systems have taken the lead in sponsoring workshops, either on their own or in cooperation with teacher-training institutions. Some have post-session or pre-session workshops; others send teams of teachers and administrators to colleges during the summer; and still others carry on workshops during the school year, designating one afternoon and evening a week for this important in-service activity.

Such workshops provide genuine opportunities for people to develop cooperative skills, to develop the ability to work and play together, and to achieve greater understanding of one another as human beings. More and more, institutions of higher learning and state departments of education are cooperating with schools in conducting such workshops the year around. A course that is of the laboratory type, set in the community, where the group can work on actual problems, is a better instrument for change than a formal campus course.

Planning periods for teachers. Essential to promoting professional growth is the provision of ample opportunities for teachers to work together on common problems. Since planning together

represents a most effective in-service activity, adequate time should be provided for it during school hours. There are many ways in which this may be done.

Some schools dismiss children early once a week or once a month so that teachers may plan together. Others use the first period in the morning, one day a week, as a time for cooperative planning. Some secondary schools schedule during the day a planning period for a group of teachers who work with the same pupils. Still others release some teachers from their classroom for a day, a week, or more if necessary to work on instructional problems. The budget makes provision for substitute teachers. One school system, after considering the problems with parents, shortened the school day by thirty minutes. The teachers agreed to use an additional thirty minutes, thus making a one-hour planning period each day. In all of these ways, there is recognition that curriculum planning is not an afterthought for tired teachers at four o'clock, but a legitimate part of the school day.

Provision for teacher attendance at state and national conferences. In the past, the superintendent usually was the only person who had funds provided by the school for travel to conventions. Today, many schools are encouraging teachers, curriculum committee chairmen, consultants and others to attend conferences by releasing them from their duties for that time and by providing funds for travel. One school system not only has a budget for this purpose, but also a teacher committee to help plan for the most effective use of the funds provided. One medium-sized school system recently sent twenty teachers and administrators to a national study conference.

*Effective consultant service.*¹ Schools are learning how to use consultants from state departments of education, universities and other organizations. They come as resource people rather than as speakers. They work in many ways: meeting with small groups, working with committees, conferring with teachers, planning with curriculum groups and bringing information definitely requested by the local group as a result of its study. Some universities still frown on giving consultation services by what they call "medicine men." However, a concept of the university as a service institution, as well as a research center, is

¹ Lawler, Marcella. *Work of the Consultant*. Ed. D. Project Report, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

beginning to emerge in many areas. State departments of education in a number of states render extensive consultation services to schools.

Provisions for scholarships. Tangible encouragement to curriculum study is given by some schools in the form of scholarships to workshops or payment of course fees when a group of teachers work together on curriculum planning for the school. In some school systems workshops planned as part of the in-service programs are subsidized so that teachers pay only part or none of the tuition. In other communities, local organizations have furnished teacher scholarships for tuition and a portion of their other expenses.

How One Staff Brought About Changes

Changes can happen. "We think we are at last getting someplace in this business of helping children grow and develop, not just as readers, but as people."² This remark came from an experienced first-grade teacher. She is one of fifteen first-grade teachers in a rural county school district. During the past school year she and the kindergarten teacher in her building have worked together to make the kindergarten-first-grade program one which recognizes and respects individual differences in children's growth. These two teachers work with parents also. They have had several joint study sessions with parents of children from both groups.

These teachers are only one of several kindergarten-first-grade teams which are working together in the district. There are five kindergartens in the county, and in each of the four larger towns where these are located, interesting study activities are developing. In the eight smaller communities and schools, primary teachers and parents also have had some valuable experiences in studying together. How has this cooperative work been brought about?

Common concerns are found. The five kindergarten teachers and their supervisor met in an evaluation session near the end of the school year. One teacher reported that parents had expressed concern over the school's expectations with regard to the first-grade program. Parents hoped, she reported, that the first-grade teachers would be willing to meet with them as the kindergarten teachers had been. One mother had said she

² Richfield, Washington.

thought these meetings had given her a better understanding of her child, and that her child would be able to read better upon entering first grade.

These and similar expressions from parents indicated to the kindergarten teachers what parents' expectations might be with regard to the first-grade program. This concerned the kindergarten teachers, who had believed that many differences existed in the children's readiness to begin "book reading." They felt that the children's continuing program should be as carefully individualized as they had tried to make it during the kindergarten year.

As a result of this evaluation session, the kindergarten teachers met with the first-grade teachers. The first-grade teachers admitted that they, too, were concerned that children make a good adjustment from kindergarten to first grade. They realized also that parent expectations sometimes make it difficult to carry on a good transition program. The teachers asked important questions:

Shall we continue having choosing periods with children next year?

What will parents say?

How can we tell when children are ready to read?

How can we convince parents that children are harmed when too much is expected too soon?

Out of the joint discussion came the query: "Could parents and teachers from both groups have a conference at the start of the school year to give early inspiration and help on understanding what makes a good program for children who are five and six?" A child-study conference was suggested.

Planning takes place. When school started in the fall, the initial planners invited parents and principals into the planning group. The home economics teachers of the high school also were invited to help with the child-study conference.

A common concern was soon discovered: What are children like and what do they need when they are five and six? This gave a focus to the purposes for study. The theme of the conference became, "Understanding Young Children."

Plans developed rather fast after that. The elementary supervisor acted as chairman of the planning group, although she felt that other leadership would emerge that could be utilized when other conferences were planned.

Topics for consideration at the conference were listed:

What is known about how children grow and develop?

What is a good program for five- and six-year-olds?

Source materials in learning more about children—films and printed matter.

Together we guide—parents and teachers.

What makes a good transition program from kindergarten to first grade?

Activities for consideration at the conference included:

Observation of children in school.

Background talks by visiting consultants from the state department of education.

Use of films about child growth and development.

An exhibit of printed material and time to use it.

Discussion of topics and problems in small discussion groups.

A social hour of visiting and refreshments.

The planning group decided, at this point, to make the study conference one which would give leadership help to groups so that a few parent representatives and teachers from each school could get help and later start local study groups in each community. At a planning session it seemed important to keep the groups small enough to have much free discussion.

As the program plan took on form and organization, responsibilities were assigned by the committee to parents and teachers. Tentative plans were sent out to consultants and schools with an invitation for parents and teachers to suggest changes. When tentative plans were returned, modifications were made and permanent plans were set up.

Parents, teachers and administrators work together. While preparations for the conference had been going on, each first-grade and kindergarten teacher in the entire district had met with parents of her group. Parents were made familiar with the planning activities and were asked to give suggestions. Then each group selected two parent representatives to attend the district conference and receive help to be shared later with local groups. Before the conference, parent representatives visited a primary school group for an entire day and talked with the teacher about the program to get some background understanding for the conference experience.

The home economics teachers met with their high-school groups and chose student representatives to attend the con-

ference. These home-making people also visited a school group in action before they came to the conference. Two high-school principals visited primary groups of children before they participated in the conference. Parent and teacher leaders of discussion groups met before the conference to receive help on how to carry on effective discussions.

Consultants and local leaders serve together. The child-study conference lasted three full days. Kindergarten and first-grade classes were excused so teachers could attend the conference. The school calendar had been made to provide time for occasional in-service education activities of this type.

The first event on the program was observation of two groups of children by all the teachers and parents. Then followed a discussion of the appropriateness of certain activities with reference to the children's needs. An opening meeting introduced the conference group to the theme and considered the topic: "What we know about children's growth and what we can expect from those who are five and six." Consultants from the state department gave background talks on this topic. On the second day, everyone saw two films, "Understanding the Do's" and "Accepting the Dont's." Discussion in groups followed. Parents examined many pamphlets and books and were given a bibliography.

The major part of the time was given to discussion of problems in small groups. Visiting and local consultants helped groups clarify their beliefs and discuss their different concerns. Parents of first-grade children talked about differences in children's growth patterns, and gained some insights into a good first-grade program for respecting differences. They discussed the need for parents and teachers to have common expectancies. As one parent said, "It seems important for children to live in one world, just as important as it is for adults. Children aren't living in one world if home and school have different expectations for them." The discussion groups were small, with twelve or fifteen people in each group. Participants included parents, teachers, high-school students and principals.

Follow-up activities are held. The day after the conference closed, each local group met in its own school to plan local study-group activities for parents and teachers. The district planning committee met to evaluate the conference and made the following recommendations for future conferences:

Have an annual child-study conference as a district event. Include parents and teachers from other primary groups.

Gradually include all school groups as the parents of kindergarten children make progress through the elementary school.

Continue to give help on leadership roles.

Take more time, but be sure to give help on the physical growth of children as it influences and is influenced by emotional, social and educational growth.

Cooperative study pays dividends. Study groups have been carried on in each of twelve communities. Some have been well attended with high interest. Some have had infrequent meetings not too well attended. But wherever there has been a kindergarten-first-grade teacher team, there has been a good study-group experience, under the leadership of parents and teachers. There have been films and discussions; there has been visiting in the school; parents have borrowed and read material about children.

This study has been translated into changes in school practices. Teachers of six-year-old children are putting more emphasis on children's emotional welfare. They are not pushing all children into book reading at the same time. They are giving more attention to such activities as dramatic play, interpretive rhythms, large muscle play activities, observing and experimenting, painting and creating and using books to help find out about interests which are already in children's living.

After one year the teachers and parents have learned much together. The real or fancied barriers to better first-grade programs are disappearing. This is evidenced in comments made by parents at their most recent group meeting. The topic being discussed was, "How shall we group children for instruction next year?" The following quotations are from remarks of parents who attended the meeting.

Why do we have grades? Why don't we just have groups of children?

My child has liked first grade better this year than my other children have, but I don't think he reads any better.

It's been such a relief to believe that my child may turn out all right even if he isn't reading as well as someone else.

I'm glad my child won't be retained.

Maybe Jerry will get along better if he is left with the younger children for part of a year.

Not all parents have allayed their fears and not all teachers have found security in changing the programs for children. But there is enough uplift in the attitudes of parents and administrators to make it possible for many teachers to say and believe, "At last we're getting somewhere."

Changes in the Teaching-Learning Situation

As teachers work together on important problems, changes take place in the way they understand and develop learning experiences in the classroom. As they study children—how they learn, why they fail, and what happens in either case—they find that *recite*, *dominate* and *punish* are no longer acceptable procedures. They see possibilities of using more materials, of giving more responsibility to pupils and of providing creative activities in the teaching-learning situation. They understand that the teacher must plan the learning situation cooperatively with pupils in terms of the behavior changes which are desirable.

Kinds of Learning Situations We Seek

Surroundings that promote learning. We may begin by developing an "at-home" feeling in the classroom, making creative use of space and surroundings to provide an attractive atmosphere for work and play, and building a situation in which people like and respect one another.

These are not dream goals that are "nice to have." They are the very heart of a good teaching-learning situation. They are as fundamental to growth of children as sunshine and good earth are to the growth of plants. The goals are put in terms of a developing situation since these conditions are not created in a hurry. Respect and mutual trust may take some time to attain in the case of children who have never been understood, always mistrusted, and never really accepted by a long succession of teachers. Where children are liked and understood, where teachers are well-adjusted people, the classroom is a real "home-room" in fact as well as in name.

Classrooms and schools in which morale is high are not difficult to spot, but they do not just happen. Someone must be responsible for setting up the kind of atmosphere in the school where people *like one another*. Usually that is the result of years of cooperative work and good leadership.

A curriculum improvement program may in some cases be concerned with planning the building for the kind of curriculum

that is needed, but more often the building is already there. Even though buildings are new, work must be done by teacher and children to make the room an attractive home for the group. Flowers may be added; room arrangements may be made more attractive and stimulating; children's art work may be placed on the walls instead of the usual drab pictures; study corners may need to be equipped. Rooms need not remain dark and gloomy if the teacher has creativity and imagination. For the inventive teacher, the room itself provides a good learning opportunity in which children may work together to improve their own surroundings.

A chance to learn self-discipline. When children plan together they need to set up rules and regulations for their conduct. Use of the library, use of materials in the room, field trips into the community, the receiving of visitors—all offer splendid opportunities for taking responsibility and deciding together how the group shall conduct itself.

There are innumerable illustrations of schools where teachers make the rules, police the halls, sell the stamps and bonds, take charge of school affairs and do things for children. These schools are depriving children of learning opportunities for the development of self-direction and responsibility. There are rigidly controlled classrooms where children sit quietly and do not make any noise, especially when the supervisor comes in. But what a contrast when the teacher leaves the room! Such teachers are not taking into account the nature of children and their needs, physical, emotional and social.

There are illustrations, in increasing numbers, of classes in which children handle their school funds, manage assembly programs, make school and classroom rules, and are given *real* responsibility. In such classrooms, children are free to move about and to work in small groups, to be *active* participants in the learning situation. Good teachers recognize that these conditions come about by giving *increasing* responsibility as children mature. The principle of maturity operates here just as much as in developing the ability to read or to think about increasingly complex problems.

In one high school, young people are learning and living democracy because the faculty members and administrators believe in democratic principles and know how learning takes place. A student government makes policies and has control over various areas of school management. Teachers partici-

pate in policy-making along with students. The situation is such, however, that it is possible for students through their government to turn down proposals made by teachers. The fundamental difference between this type of student government and the type found in many schools is that students have real responsibility for making their government work. They feel that it is their problem, and that they have been entrusted with the responsibility for making student government succeed. Contrast this procedure with one where the student council is given "clean-up" jobs or asked to improve school citizenship, when the students really have no say in their school's civic affairs.

A common concern for solving important problems. Since learning begins with problems—personal, personal-social, social-civic and economic—which are meaningful to the learner, it is important that the curriculum be based upon such problems. Most instructional improvement, unfortunately, has been centered on the revision of subject matter organization; hence there is a great paucity of studies which have been made to identify life problems of children. There is urgent need for teachers working with students, parents and lay people to discover new techniques and procedures for identifying life situations involving concerns of boys and girls at all levels of maturity. This responsibility can best be carried on through the leadership of classroom teachers who work and live with their students and know them well. A few procedures which seem to offer promise in accomplishing this goal are:

Providing continuous planning opportunities for teachers and others.

Developing a better understanding of the growth and development of children.

Making a selective, purposeful study of professional literature.

Studying the impact of society on children.

Planning simple, action-research projects.

When the problems are identified, the method of solution becomes a matter of prime importance. Too often desirable procedures are short-circuited. Thus the teacher may provide the solution or the child may arrive at one without sufficient evidence. The wise teacher will help children to develop and use the scientific method of solving problems. He will assist them in delimiting and clearly defining a problem, in setting up hypotheses, in gathering all pertinent and available data, in

analyzing and evaluating the data, in drawing conclusions and in planning a course of action. When this process is used, the behaviors developed by the individual as a result of the solution are more certain to be in harmony with the democratic way of living and, because they are based upon firsthand experience, the learnings are usually more lasting and persistent.

A place where all find opportunity to take part and to succeed. In addition to the matters of common concern to the group, there are concerns unique to the individual child. Individual reading interests, leisure-time interests, adjustment problems, and special abilities must be provided for. Many of these individual concerns, however, can be cared for within the group situation.

Most children can find a place for themselves in a group project. Some contribute by interviewing people; others, by doing necessary art work; others, needed construction work; and so on. They do not all read the same books, for their classrooms are rich in resource materials. Creative activities, speech activities, writing, reporting, constructing are all part of a curriculum that takes into consideration the development of the individual.

People, organizations, the radio, visual aids, the community stores, factories and historical buildings are splendid resources for learning.

As the classroom is extended into the community, teachers and pupils find many opportunities for service. During the past war, schools developed many excellent programs designed to give community service. Some high schools made available such experiences as a part of the common learnings of all pupils. Communities and schools have lost immeasurably in some cases because service activities of this type by children or adults have not been continued. But many other opportunities still exist for giving service to the school, welfare agencies and the community. For example, some schools have developed comprehensive programs of on-the-job training in which young people work part time and go to school the balance of the day for related training and general education.

High-school youth need as much variety in activities and materials as do children. Especially in English, social studies and science classes should a wide choice of reading and reference materials be readily available.

How Desirable Teaching-Learning Situations Come About

ILLUSTRATION ONE—*Children and teacher in a one-room school plan together to make their room more attractive*³

Our school is a square one-room structure located on a hilltop. The building had not been painted in fifteen years. It bore a neglected, weather-beaten look that showed how unimportant the school was to the people of the community. Because of the lack of paint, it looked gray almost to the pinkish stage. Walls of the building interior were various shades of tan and dark brown. The ceiling at one time had been white, but it was now streaked and smudged by smoke from the coal stove. Although our room had eight large windows, the lighting was poor, so that all our desks had been moved nearer the windows. When the winter wind was especially cold, we would all move back around the stove again.

SOLVING A REAL PROBLEM

Like most schools in North Dakota, ours included an active Young Citizens League. In the fall, when we were deciding on a project for the year, a number of suggested projects had been written on the blackboard. We discussed each one in turn. When we came to school beautification, one of the youngsters remarked, "We could really go to town on that one!" We had found our project. We didn't have time to work any more that day, but agreed to try, over the week-end, to see how many things we could think of that might help beautify the school.

SETTING GOALS FOR SCHOOLROOM IMPROVEMENT

Monday morning the pupils came back with ideas. They called their meeting and began to give suggestions. One student made a list on the board of all the things we could do to improve our room. Their ideas ranged from painting to the making of draperies. On one board, we listed all the things we wanted to do. On another, we listed all the ways in which we could go about doing these things. These lists became very impressive.

"How can we pay for all these improvements?" one boy asked. Another suggested a solution: "We can have a carnival." And so we did. In fact, we had three carnivals. We let it be known that these were given for money to repair and beautify

³ As reported at a conference of county school superintendents at State Teachers College, Mayville, North Dakota, by Ella Solberg, teacher, Norway School, Norway, North Dakota.

our school. From the three carnivals we made over three hundred and fifty dollars. The school district furnished the rest of the money needed for improvement of our school.

VARIED LEARNINGS GO ON IN PROBLEM SOLVING

After they had decided what improvements were to be made, the children organized committees so they could begin work. Each group worked on its own problems and its own level.

The first problem we ran into was lack of materials. We wrote letters to paint companies asking for color cards and information about reflection on warm and cool colors. Then we wrote to the U. S. Department of Agriculture, asking for pamphlets on school beautification and interior decorating. Then we wrote to nearly every store in Grand Forks and Fargo, asking for samples of drapery material. We studied about plant and animal fibers and about the conditions under which they are produced. We wrote letters and also kept narrative accounts of our work.

We studied complementary and monochromatic colors. We found that color should be used on certain sides of the house depending on the windows, the lighting and the purposes of the room. We learned how some colors give cheer while others have a tendency to soothe. We studied light reflections. We figured accurately how much paint and draperies would cost. This also gave us opportunity for many kinds of measuring.

Wood in our room is a soft, porous material and therefore absorbs a great deal of paint. We learned that inexpensive water paint would serve well as a primer coat. To find out how much we would need, we started with one square foot on the wall and found out how much paint it absorbed. Then we figured how much paint we would need for the entire room.

We found we needed to learn to spell some new words. We often needed these words when we were writing letters. Many of these words became familiar, and the children used them with meaning. The upper grades read much material about interior decorating.

Our biggest problem was deciding on a suitable color scheme. We found that white reflected the most light, but we didn't wish to sacrifice a cheery color for white. We tried out various shades, and finally decided on pale yellow for the ceiling and brighter yellow for the walls. We used rose and yellow for the bookshelves, and also for the wash center.

This is the way we worked to make our room attractive. In organizing and carrying out the work, the children had many worth-while experiences in reading, languages, arithmetic and art. More important, the children learned how to work happily and purposefully together toward solution of common problems.

ILLUSTRATION TWO—*Seventh-graders work on community problems*⁴

Early in October, our teacher suggested that a study of life in our community might prove helpful to us. She thought also that we might find it worth while to study the way people live in other parts of the world, so that we could make comparisons. Perhaps this would help us think of ways to improve our own community.

PLANNING THE WORK TOGETHER

Thirty-two seventh-graders accepted the challenge and began immediately to make plans for the study of Centreville. Many questions were raised. Shirley wrote them on the board: How did our community come to be? Who were the earliest settlers? Where did they come from? How did they make their living? What wars were fought here? What were the results? What are the ways by which people in the community now make their living? How are the people governed?

STUDYING OUR LOCAL COMMUNITY

For approximately three weeks we studied the history of our community. We found answers to our questions in history books, in visits to battlefields and the museum, and through asking parents and various persons who knew much about the history of our community. We found, among other things, that our community had served as part of important battlefields in two major wars. Study of our community's history gave us the feeling that we owe much to our ancestors and that we have much to live up to.

We next began a study of present-day occupations in the community. What occupations are represented? How many people make their living in each? Study of the teachers' registers revealed the following vocations of the fathers of the children in our school: farming, automotive mechanics, truck driving, engineering, teaching.

⁴ Wilda Woodruff, teacher, seventh grade, Centreville, Virginia.

USING PEOPLE AS RESOURCES

We began our study of occupations by taking a look at agriculture. Mr. Jones, the club leader from the county agriculture agent's office, was invited to help the group get started.

Mr. Jones referred to two maps of the county which he placed on the bulletin board. One was a soil map; the other was a road map. He pointed out on each map the area in which the children live, and then began talking about farming in our area.

When Mr. Jones was ready for questions, Joan led the discussion. "Why is tobacco grown here?" asked Delano. "Does our community have many different kinds of soil?" inquired Marie. "Why do some people live on farms and work in the city?" asked Shirley. Mr. Jones gave thoughtful answers to the questions.

During the last part of the period, Mr. Jones suggested some ways in which he thought that agriculture in our community might be improved. He thought seventh-graders could help:

Replace chemicals that have been taken from the soil by planting crops that will replace them. Better crop rotation. Plant more grass.

Plant more trees. Remove scrub trees and replace with fast-growing trees such as pines and poplars.

Conserve wild life.

Produce more vegetables for home use.

Make fertilizer from dead leaves.

CARRYING ON CONTINUOUS PLANNING

After a brief recess, the class came together again to list some sources from which we might get information about agriculture not only in our community, but in other sections of the United States.

Our list included geographies, science books, library, encyclopedias, magazines, newspapers, movies, soil conservation service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, vocational agriculture teacher, farmers in the community.

Among the reasons discussed for studying agriculture or any other occupation in our community, were the following:

By learning how to raise better foods, we may improve our health.

We can learn how to improve farming in Centreville, and then we can actually help to make it better.

We will be able to understand better how all people are dependent on farming, whether or not they live on farms. We should learn better what is meant by interdependence. We will get good practice in reading, English, spelling and arithmetic as we study farming and other occupations.

We agreed that all of these are important aims to keep in mind. It was decided, however, that our major aim would be to learn how agriculture can be improved in our community.

INVESTIGATING SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Our next task was to begin locating some of the sources we had listed. It was agreed that all of us would look in our own textbooks to see if they contained information. Committees were appointed to search in the library and in other rooms for other textbooks, encyclopedias, magazines and newspapers. The next period was spent in assembling sources. References were listed in each student's notebook. This was a research period. The teacher gave individual help as it was needed.

Mr. Jones, the club leader, again met with the group to show us how to test soil. Some students tried testing soil at home.

Early in our study we agreed that each student should keep a record of class activities. We asked Kathleen, Nancy and Katherine to be our official secretaries, however, so that at the end we would have a complete story not only of what we had done in our study about agriculture, but also of things we were going to do to improve agriculture in our community.

VARIETY AND FLEXIBILITY IN A DAY'S SCHEDULE

We always spend the first half of the morning on our main problem. There may be other times during the day when we work on it, but a typical day includes many other activities.

9:00- 9:15—Working committees carry out their responsibilities.

9:15-10:45—What can we do to improve agriculture in our community? (Science or Social Studies).

10:45-11:00—Breather.

11:00-11:45—Arithmetic.

11:45-12:15—Lunch.

12:15- 1:00—Reading skills.

1:00- 2:00—Music or art.

2:00- 2:30—Physical education.

2:30- 3:20—English skills and spelling.

TAKING STOCK

Every now and then we take stock of what we are doing. We ask ourselves this question: In what ways are the aims we set up at the beginning of the year being met? What improvements do we need to make? At the end of the year we hope we can show that we have made much progress toward the following objectives:

To improve our ability to solve problems intelligently.

To improve our ability in the use of skills—reading, English, spelling, arithmetic.

To keep our bodies healthy.

To improve our ability to accept and carry responsibility.

To improve our ways of working together.

ILLUSTRATION THREE—*Teen-age problem class*⁵

This junior high school has a heterogeneous student population, thirty percent of which is Negro, about eight percent Mexican-American, a smaller percentage Japanese-American, and the rest Caucasian. Many European backgrounds are represented in the school, and quite a diversity of religions.

Teachers in this school have tried to integrate home-making with social studies and English in a practical home and family living program.

TEACHERS DISCUSS PUPIL NEEDS

In the fall of 1948, a group of social studies and homemaking teachers, discussing needs and problems of ninth-graders, began to see a possible correlation in the program offered. We decided that in order to develop a curriculum that would meet more satisfactorily the problems of this age level, the program must be planned by students and teachers over a sufficiently long period of time. One particular advantage of such a correlated program would be that this arrangement would enable each teacher to become better acquainted with the students in his class. Also, the students would know that there was one person, at least, definitely interested in their progress.

From research studies and personal observations, we learned some of the adolescent's difficulties, most of which are apparently related to personality and social adjustment.

⁵ Submitted by Joseph T. Deverian, Jr., Lorie Floy Faith, and Marilee Stevens Panagis, Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, California.

Almost all adolescents rebel against family ties and other restrictions.

Almost all are anxious and insecure.

Almost all recognize the great power of their peer-group.

Adolescents develop a strong loyalty and devotion to their group.

All are eager for the approval of persons a little older than themselves.

PLANNING A SUITABLE ENVIRONMENT

We decided that a first step toward helping adolescents solve these difficulties was to provide an environment which would deal more satisfactorily with pupil needs and problems. The resulting plan provided for a program consisting of two hours with a core teacher and one hour with the homemaking teacher. The curriculum would be planned by both teachers and students for the entire three-hour period.

Some of the preparatory work done by the teachers, in summer workshop and in our weekly meetings at school, included collecting resource materials such as books, pamphlets, names of possible guest speakers, appropriate places to visit and titles of significant films. This work has involved considerable correspondence with educational leaders, book companies, film distributors, etc.

PUPILS INDICATE NEEDED BEHAVIORAL CHANGES

When asked to identify those things which they wanted to learn how to do, students listed more than two hundred items. Some of these were: how to give successful parties, how to be popular, how to buy one's own clothing, how to plan for a successful occupational life, and how to spend leisure time intelligently.

Large areas of interest included: boy-and-girl relationships, consumer education, leisure-time activities, grooming, personality development, occupational life, social courtesies, friends, value of an education, and being a good citizen.

Decisions were reached as to what might best be taught by each teacher in consideration of the specialties and abilities of each staff member. Students have generally come to understand the nature of the resources available, and make their plans accordingly.

Various devices have been employed to help the student

evaluate his progress. It must be indicated, however, that none of this material is final and that we are continually revising and re-evaluating the program and processes employed. A monthly conference is held with each student, at which time many things are discussed besides progress in school. Each pupil has a folder to which the teachers and students contribute and from which help is received.

RESOURCES TO BRING ABOUT THE CHANGES

We have used some highly appropriate films: "Feeling of Rejection," "Feeling of Hostility," "Family Life," "Dinner Party," "Shy Guy," "The Good Job," "Junior Prom," "How Do You Do," "Arranging the Tea Table," "Are You Popular?" "Arranging the Buffet Table," and "Fumble Recovered."

Several clubs in our city have been invited to send speakers to inform the class of opportunities in various occupations. Some club members who are engaged in occupations in which students are interested have invited the young people to visit them at work.

Many good recordings are available in the various areas mentioned. A particularly good series is one entitled, "Lest We Forget."

All of these activities have been carried out with at least one class, but not all in every class. Not all classes were ready for some of these activities at the same time. We found the needs to be as numerous as the individuals.

SITUATIONS PLANNED TO BRING ABOUT DESIRABLE CHANGE

Situations were set up so that each individual could participate in planning a program that would best meet his needs and help him identify his role in home and community life.

An informal atmosphere and a chance to work and plan with friends on interesting activities with practical application did much to contribute toward a successful program of school experience for these teen-agers.

Among the most successful activities were the social experiences which the teen-agers had together. Each year a number of these activities were planned by the class and carried to completion. Last year the students had a barbecue in one of the school patios. They planned the menu, invited their guests, and decided what they wanted to do for entertainment and what courtesies were needed in order to carry the barbecue through

successfully. Opportunity to have a party of this kind meant a great deal to students in learning proper social behavior.

This year the class decided to have a tea for the entire ninth grade. The ninth-grade students were invited, in groups, to come to the tea at certain specified times. Class members served as hosts. As planned, this procedure made it possible for the entire ninth grade to benefit from the experiences of the teen-age problems class, and thus to develop a better class spirit.

Another valuable experience was a luncheon which the class planned for all the student councils of the city. This social occasion required the making of place cards, planning of the menu, receiving the guests, serving the food, organizing to take care of about one hundred guests of the school, and the fitting of all this into the ongoing program of the student council.

One of the most successful experiences this year has been an assembly program called, "It's More Fun To Know," consisting of a number of skits on manner, dress and social usage. This grew out of a suggestion by the students that they have a fashion show. Though they had only a limited stock of clothing, the boys and girls wanted to show the proper apparel for the proper occasion. They wanted a skit which would show what they had learned about grooming, manners and how to behave in social groups. Youngsters wrote the skit and decided upon their own parts. They arranged for the presentation to the student body, carried out the rehearsals, and gave the skit in almost a professional manner.

After the program had been presented, the group prepared evaluation material along the lines, "How did this assembly help me?" and "How this experience helped me get along with others."

GROUP EVALUATION OF BEHAVIOR CHANGES

An attempt is made to evaluate constantly the class's experiences, attitudes and outcomes. At the beginning, each student in conference with his teacher fills out a student questionnaire. This enables the teacher to arrive at some insight into each youngster's interests and special problems. Group conferences, too, are held occasionally about individual students, attended by all teachers concerned. In this manner, teachers sometimes are able to get a collective view of students who have particular problems and can work out uniform ways of helping them meet these problems.

Youngsters soon become accustomed to evaluating the work which they have been doing and once a month they fill out an evaluation form. Particular emphasis is given to personality problems, and the boys and girls have developed some ways in which they can rate themselves in the traits which they think are important. Various tests are given during the year, such as the California Personality Test, the Guess-Who Test and the Kuder Preference Test.

One outcome of the class has been the wide variety of work which has developed as the class has gone along. The boys and girls have developed their own rules for friendly letters and a booklet giving examples of how to apply these rules. Another booklet on how to find and keep friends, which was cleverly illustrated with line drawing cartoons, was developed. Their booklet having to do with the customs of Christmas was particularly interesting because of the wide cultural background of the students. Still another booklet on party plans and manners was designed and skillfully illustrated.

ILLUSTRATION FOUR—*Child-centered teaching*⁶

After two years, teachers of the experimental seventh-grade groups described here are convinced that it is necessary to live with people if we are to know them. We have lived with boys and girls in home-room groups, working in an adaptation of the core curriculum for three hours each day. Results of this program may be contrasted with our former forty-minute contacts with five or six classes every day.

WE WORK WITH PEOPLE TO HELP THEM GROW

In preparation for this work, we set up specific aims and objectives which we felt should be kept in mind as we tackled our problems. First of all, we wanted to help these children coming to us from smaller elementary school communities to adjust and to find suitable places in our secondary school. We wanted to create a democratic atmosphere in which each child could develop socially and intellectually through worth-while activities and experiences. These activities were to consist of a related program in English, reading, geography and history. We believed that the teacher and pupils, working together, could carry out such a program.

⁶ Submitted by Alma F. Spenser, Garrison Junior High School, Baltimore, Maryland.

Through genuine understanding and frequent evaluation, we hoped to develop a sincere respect for the personality and abilities of each individual. We thought that, in a longer time block, we might cultivate in the classroom an atmosphere which would stimulate sincerity, kindness, helpfulness and the proper attitudes toward the job to be done.

WE MOVE INTO AN EVER-EXPANDING COMMUNITY

Familiarity with the new and different school plant and school staff was our first step. We wanted to acquaint the boys and girls with their surroundings and to make them feel, as soon as possible, that each of them belonged to his new school. We took time at the very beginning of the school term to visit all departments of the school from the top floor to the furnace room.

A study of the history and development of our neighborhood, city, state and nation was the next step. We visited outside the schoolroom, we talked to and wrote to people, we brought in guests. We discussed the work and the contributions of all our neighbors. We found that America's story is the story of all the peoples of the world.

SELF-EVALUATION IS IMPORTANT TO SELF-DEVELOPMENT

The ability to evaluate, whether it was an individual effort, a group project, or a class excursion, was encouraged throughout these two years' work. It seemed a very natural outgrowth of this training, therefore, at the end of each semester to give the pupils an opportunity to evaluate the program as it affected them as individuals and as a group.

Concerning the New School

One child felt: The program gave me time to get accustomed to my new school and the way a junior high school works.

Carol, a timid girl, says: The program helped me to change from the elementary school schedule to the junior high schedule more easily.

Concerning Human Relations

All pupils agreed: Our home-room group enables the teacher and the children to become better acquainted than in our regular afternoon classes.

David is the serious type: I like to study people, and in this class I have time to do that.

Donald is friendly: We have time to become better friends with each other and with our teacher. We learn to get along with each other.

Concerning School Work

Kenneth, who likes to contribute, says: We have more time for interesting, worth-while discussions on the subjects we are studying.

Donald, who enjoys life, says: There is a great deal of pleasure along with our work.

Francis, who is a slow pupil, thinks: I now have a better chance to catch up in my work.

Children who need more time say: We do not have to rush to get our work done because the bell is going to ring.

THE TEACHER, TOO, SHARES IN EVALUATION

In the beginning we set up our aims and objectives, and during the past two years we have constantly and consistently evaluated in terms of these goals. We have watched our boys and girls develop desirable and healthy attitudes toward one another, toward teachers and toward their responsibilities, as we lived and worked with them. Our own evaluation of the program leads us to feel that we have contributed something toward educating the "whole child" by offering him many learning situations which will help to prepare him for practical good citizenship, now and in the future.

Changes in Pupil Behavior

The ultimate goal of all curriculum planning and study is to help the pupil develop improved ways of behaving. Any change in materials, organization, professional staff or the learning situation, is made for the purpose of facilitating learning and enriching the lives of children. It is necessary, however, to concentrate on different aspects of these changes in order to bring about situations in which desired changes in pupil behavior will be likely to occur.

The only functional objective is one that focuses on behavior change. Goals that describe what we want children and youth to be like can be put into action because they show us how pupils act, feel and think. They are concerned with the kind of person the child is now, while recognizing that the kind of adult he will become depends upon the life he lives every day through all the stages of growth.

Kinds of Behavior Change We Seek

It is impossible to list all the desirable behavior changes which may be achieved through education. The more specific behavior changes are determined by the meaningful problems which are identified in planning a life experience with children. There are, however, some very significant behaviors which permeate many learning situations. Some of these behaviors may be described.

Increased skill in solving problems that are meaningful and important to children and youth. Children learn to solve problems through working on those that are significant to them. For example, a social studies curriculum based upon the problem approach deals in social action, controversial issues and the social life of the pupil in his own environment. The core curriculum should provide full and free opportunity for teachers and children to deal with significant life problems.

Diversity of interests, including the awakening of new interests. People who have wide interests are more interesting people. A person who likes baseball, poetry, music of all kinds, dancing, current novels is one who is apt to be happier with himself and with others than if he enjoyed only poetry or only baseball. School people who believe this work toward developing a greater diversity of interests among their students.

Better understanding and appraisal of oneself. Pupils who are not well adjusted and who do not understand themselves can be helped to solve their problems through reading, through self-appraisal, through talking about things that concern them and through cooperative planning of other kinds of learning experiences. Opportunities of these kinds must be provided in the school program. If we want such changes to occur, there must be definite planning for them.

Improvement in the skills of communication. The modern school is concerned with the skills of communication. It is also concerned with *what* is communicated.

Gain in self-direction and independence in selecting and planning out-of-school and in-school activities. Do pupils sit quietly and wait for the teacher to tell them what to do next? Do they accept without question what the teacher or the book says? If so, it is doubtful whether anyone concerned in this school has ever thought about self-direction and independence as an im-

portant goal. Where children take care of their own things, where boys put away their shop tools even if the teacher is not present, where young people decide what to do in determining policies for their own school dances—there is apt to be a teacher who considers gaining of self-direction and independence by pupils a desirable goal of the school.

Awareness of differing cultures, and willingness to work and play with persons of other cultures. In schools where administrators and teachers know the facts about social class distinction in American society—and in school society—children are less apt to be segregated into separate boys' and girls' classes, homogeneously grouped classes, "college curricula" or any groupings that accentuate social differences. School improvement programs have devoted considerable time in recent years to intergroup education. Experiences are planned with children which will help them understand and accept others with backgrounds different from their own.

Improvement in the skills and attitudes of good human relations. Willingness to work with those who hold differing opinions creates a climate in which skills in human relations can be improved. Democratic skills and attitudes must be among the primary aims of the school. These include: concern for the welfare of others, skill in social relations, accepting people as they are, and working to develop group consciousness. For social skills to find their proper emphasis, many of the organizational patterns of the classroom must be changed, and many of the barriers to use of the community as a laboratory must be removed.

Ability to analyze critically various types and sources of information. As pupils use many kinds of information and investigate problems, they will learn to be critical of sources and to select pertinent facts. The school improvement program that aims at these results must include a vigorous campaign for more and better materials in the library and the classroom.

Ability to find information needed. If many sources of information are used, pupils will learn how and where to find needed facts. Library skills are learned through constant, purposeful use of the library. Use of the dictionary, encyclopedia, *Reader's Guide* and other tools for finding information can be a constant part of the day-by-day learning situation. The modern school tends to move away from an instructional program that

gives priority to memorization of facts and toward one that stresses the skills of finding and using facts effectively.

Increasing development of initiative and creativeness. A concerted attempt needs to be made to move from the "recite" method of teaching to the cooperative procedure whereby personality is respected in the classroom and opportunity is given children to develop their talents. In such a cooperative atmosphere, initiative is encouraged and original ideas have a chance to develop. Here, too, everyone has opportunity to be creative in some way—through ideas, plans of organization, writing, painting, drawing, arranging the room, musical composition, new games, and the like.

Kinds of Information We Need About Behavior

An instructional program that has as its goal the development and change of behavior requires a kind of evaluation and recording of behavior which includes far more than test results and marks. Single marks hide rather than reveal information about behavior. For each desired type of behavior change, there must be evaluation to see if the change has occurred.

Part of curriculum planning must be concerned with recording information about children and with reporting information to parents. Anecdotal records and information on home visits, parent-teacher conferences, and pupil evaluation provide sources which may be used in charting the status and growth of pupils in relation to desired objectives. Another concern related to school organization is provision of opportunity for teachers to get to know their pupils. This phase is described more fully in a later section of the book.

If teachers are to pay more attention to development of attitudes, skills, appreciations and understandings as the ends of instruction, there must be a fundamental change in the forms of evaluation used. The paper-and-pencil test is inadequate for evaluating a modern school program. The main difficulty with such tests is that, since they usually test information, the whole teaching process is oriented toward teaching fragments of information.

Steps needed in curriculum planning with regard to evaluation are:

Develop know-how in observing, recording and evaluating growth in behavior.

Shift the emphasis in evaluation from testing for acquisition of facts to evaluating for growth toward desirable behavior objectives.

Realize at all times that the way in which evaluation is conducted sets the pattern for the curriculum.

Develop the skill of using evaluation as a continuous teaching tool rather than as something done only as a backward look.

Make evaluation a cooperative, continuing enterprise in which teacher, pupils and parents participate.

Learning Situations That Aim Toward Change in Behavior

ILLUSTRATION ONE—*Changing pupil behavior*⁷

Not too long ago, my first-grade room was like any other formal schoolroom. Tables and chairs, for the most part, had to stay put. While chairs occasionally were set in a large circle, the tables always remained in the same places. Other equipment in the room included an easel, a few blocks, many sets of books, a set of workbooks, uniform paper on which to draw and write, and fresco paints and crayons.

Children entered the room in the morning and for most of the day remained in their seats, where they did number work and used workbooks. When they did leave the room, they marched out formally and returned in like manner. They were very obedient children. They did what I wanted done, when I wanted it, without registering eagerness or dislike. They followed a routine pattern day after day. I conducted a fixed number of reading groups, and each child in a given group read the same book at the same time on the same page, first silently and later orally. Each reading lesson followed a set pattern of *motivation*, *presentation* of new material, and *drill* for word recognition.

Also not too long ago, we had rather rigid standards of achievement for each grade level. Each child in my first grade was required to attain these standards before being allowed to go on to second grade. He had to be able to read a primer fluently and to write numbers from one to one hundred. If a child failed to attain these standards and was allowed to go on with his group to the second grade, the first-grade teacher had erred,

⁷ Submitted by Eileen Stroud, Sandy First Grade, Jordan School District, Sandy, Utah.

and the second-grade teacher frowned on the intellectual status of such a child sent to her.

QUESTIONING WHAT IS HAPPENING TO CHILDREN

As I began to study newer trends in teaching and working with children, I questioned: "What am I doing to children? What is this program doing to the emotional growth of these children?" I began to see the need for flexibility in the schoolroom and the program, the need for freedom of expression, for teacher-pupil planning, for pupil self-evaluation and constructive criticism, and for more and greater variety of challenging materials. I began to want a calm, yet stimulating, room atmosphere in which children could experience self-discipline through varied interests; a room that would provide many avenues for improved daily living.

GIVING CHILDREN A CHANCE TO GROW

Through reading and experimenting, I attempted some of the procedures I had begun to believe in. Our schoolroom has now undergone such a change that it can hardly be recognized as the same place. Furniture is movable and can be arranged in any form needed. Materials and mediums of expression are available in great variety to help children expand their interests and understandings and to extend their creative opportunities. Among these are science materials for study and experimentation, different art mediums, materials that furnish opportunities for musical expression, books and equipment for broadening reading interests, play materials, and visual aids.

We have brought the outdoors into the classroom and have also moved beyond the classroom to the greater outdoors. Larger time blocks in the daily schedule, rather than short, unrelated periods, have made this possible. Large time blocks have allowed much flexibility so that children could stay with one activity for longer periods of time when the problem at hand demanded it, or could undertake a variety of tasks when this better met our need. The schedule provided time when individual children could carry out activities and when problems common to the group as a whole could be discussed and worked on. We have used our time schedule as a guide and have grown in ability to estimate how much time will be needed for an activity and in ability to assume responsibility for using time efficiently.

LOOKING AT INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR CHANGES

I found I was doing much more over-all planning in advance, asking such evaluative questions as: What are our problems? How far have individuals and groups progressed in the project? Is more time needed? What difficulties have we met? What about other activities that need attention? Did Kenny finish his work of yesterday? Did the group working on furniture finish their painting, or should more time be allowed? What about Sharon's problem of writing that came up today? How can Ronald come to feel that he is one of the group? In all such evaluation, I had come to remind myself that the children must share in the planning. For this reason, I could no longer set up in advance a long sequence of activities to be carried out over a specific number of days and weeks.

As we planned together, suggestions from the group often changed our first plans, both in activities undertaken and in their sequence. We planned the work in general and then outlined more specific activities for the given day's attention to each problem. These cooperative daily plans have been flexibly organized and modified as children have continued to make their contributions. We have begun to take time to live, to share, to think, to create.

GROWING IN INDEPENDENCE AND SELF-DIRECTION

It is gratifying to see the children's growth in independence and in ability to initiate and complete tasks. By independence is meant the ability of children to plan, to do things for themselves, to find materials they need or to substitute other materials, to set up problems and try to find solutions to these problems. They are assuming more and more responsibility on their own initiative: responsibility for housekeeping duties, caring for pets, flowers, chalk, board, easel paints, clay table, work bench and science corner arrangement; responsibility for making reports, for gathering, using and putting away materials, for taking care of their own belongings and for helping to create a happy, satisfying atmosphere for all.

Parents have become so enthusiastic over our program that they are contributing much time to it and are often found working with us in the classroom. Children assume responsibilities very readily when problems are discussed. Cooperative solutions are now arrived at more quickly. Each day is a new challenging adventure.

WORKING TOGETHER TOWARD ACCEPTED GOALS

Many changes in pupil behavior have been noted since the school climate has begun to encourage the child to select from a fund of available materials those which fit his needs. The old familiar, "What shall I do now, teacher?" has practically disappeared. Only three such queries have been addressed to me this year, and these by children new in the school who were unaccustomed to our way of working and living together.

We are grasping every opportunity that may open for pupils new and interesting avenues or develop sensitivity to the feelings and problems of others.

Sherma has been ill and out of school much of this year. The boys and girls have written her a number of notes and letters, mailing a few each week. Sherma's mother says she talks of each child as if she were actually attending school every day. Sherma's response to their letters has been a great incentive for the children's learning to write.

On one occasion, a child fell and fractured his arm. This accident afforded many opportunities for teaching safety and sympathy for others in misfortune. "Did you cry when you hurt your arm?" "We'd better be careful while we're out by the slide." "Don't feel bad; I'll help you write your name when you need to." "Just take it easy and I'll help you."

These and many other experiences are evidence of cooperative living. Decisions are made as the children talk plans over together. Children now keep more constructively occupied through their interests. They now have a multitude of ideas and interesting plans they wish to try out as quickly as they can get to them. They rapidly progress from one phase of learning to the next more difficult phase.

We have not arrived at solutions to all the problems, but we are moving forward. We welcome all help toward building for greater understanding and richer living.

ILLUSTRATION TWO—*Changing pupil behavior*⁸

"Children are much happier as a result of the way we work together now." These were the words of a fourth-grade teacher who had been quite efficient in following the teacher-question, pupil-answer, drill type of instruction. After some needed sug-

⁸ Submitted by Virginia Merrill, supervisor of elementary education, Davis County School District, Farmington, Utah.

gestions and the assurance that she was free to move forward on her own initiative, this teacher has changed entirely the teaching-learning situation in her room.

She and her pupils became especially interested in conservation of natural resources. Through teacher-pupil planning, much use is being made of their immediate environment and of the resources of the community. Extensive use is made of the scientific method of problem solving through experiments, excursions, discussions and reading of related materials. One need only watch this group ply a visiting expert with questions to know that many changes have been taking place in pupil behavior. That the children are increasing their ability to solve problems which are meaningful and important to them is indicated by the following excerpts:

"We all wanted to know how mineral elements get into food. Our teacher didn't tell us or give us books to read, but she took us into the playground and there we saw mud, sand, gravel and clay. We learned that rocks help to make all these kinds of soils. Crushed rocks would put new mineral elements into the soil, but still we didn't know how minerals get into cabbages, celery or spinach.

"Then Mr. Starr came to visit us, and we soon learned that we need something else in the soil besides mineral elements. It is organic matter. Organic matter is in the form of living or dead plants and animals such as bacteria, fungi, insects, worms and many other things. All of this makes humus, which puts life into the soil.

"There are different ways of losing our soil. One is gully erosion. We watched the water form gullies after a rain. This happened right in our own school yard. The water came slowly, then picked up speed and started carrying away soil. We can't plant vegetative covers because it is too dry in summer. But we did line these gullies with rocks."

That these children have developed initiative and creativity is indicated by the fact that, while conservation has been the general center of interest for four years, the study has taken an entirely different direction with each group of students. One year the emphasis was upon causes of soil erosion in the local community. The next year happened to be centennial year in the state, so pioneers and the history of the community were thoroughly studied. Another year, learnings extended beyond the local and state scene to other parts of America and to other

countries of the world. Approaches to the general area of interest have been entirely different each year, as have been the presentations given for other groups and parents.

Original plays, songs, dances, art work and easel sketching as part of explanation, are concrete evidences that much of the children's thinking and planning went into all of the work. In their own words: "The presentation of this 'Review' came from our studies. It just grew."

Realization of the importance of sources of information is evidenced by two items in the records:

"Our reading lessons are not always found in books. Sometimes we read the newspapers. One day we read a story about the Colorado River. Then we began studying about it."

"When Mr. Corbitt came to talk to us about evaporation, we understood what he meant because our newspaper had shown us something about it."

In sharing information and learnings, these pupils show improved skills of communication both in speaking and in writing. They now take pride in writing their ideas for others to read. These and other evidences of changed behavior in pupils make it easy to see that children are happier in an environment such as this.

Changes in Community-School Relations

An important aspect of curriculum improvement is that of knitting school and community more closely together in the interest of better education. There have been instances in recent years when the very process of planning a new school building has been a divisive factor in the community. East side has fought with west side over the location of the building; factions have been formed in disagreement over the amount of money to be spent; communities have even been shaken by arguments over the name of the school. In most such cases, the chances are that one would find that no continuous community-school study of school matters has been undertaken in these situations. Emergencies may have arisen at times, forcing the school and community to plan together. But once the emergency is past, the school in such a situation usually lapses back into doing its job by itself. The community then is the worse off because of the deep scars left by the conflict.

In more promising situations, where school leadership seeks and uses every available means for cooperative study and plan-

ning, lay people are proud of their school because they have really made it theirs. The school knits the community together in many ways because it is the hub of community activity. These are the types of programs which are significant in community-school relations.

Kinds of Changes the School Seeks

Community-school cooperative participation. Although curriculum study may begin as a school function, it should seek immediately to bring lay citizens into the planning. This aim differs sharply from the mere provision of information to the community. Rather, the goal is to make lay and school people active participants in working together for better schools. Curriculum councils, study committees and summer workshops should include lay people as members who have a definite part in the study. Where lay people have participated in setting salary schedules, teachers have sometimes been surprised that these citizens have recommended higher salaries than the teachers had hoped for. Such results do not come about by accident, or through one or two meetings of a group.

Many schools are taking the lead in forming community planning organizations for recreation and for furthering the general welfare of the community. In one city, the school and community recreation programs are coordinated and developed under a director whose salary is paid jointly by the schools and the city government. Community planning groups for bringing about better education are still relatively scarce. Such groups, however, have real potentialities for encouraging organizations that are concerned with education to work together for the good of children and youth in and out of school. In a number of communities, citizens' committees have been organized to work with the schools in making studies and in planning for bond issues, tax referendums and instructional improvement. Other schools have lay advisory councils which are giving excellent service.

Parent-teacher organizations represent an important potential for the good of education. Curriculum improvement programs may well look into the possibilities of helping these groups keep their efforts focused upon the actual, vital problems which schools face. When such groups have organized according to room activities or have formed study groups to consider school problems, child growth, and the like, they have been most

successful in defining and meeting these problems. When parents come to school to visit and to help, there seems to be evidence of effective parent-teacher organization.

When school and community work together for the common good, improved educational and other services for children and youth are likely to result. Community councils can provide guidance and health services to out-of-school youth and extend recreational training and facilities to all groups of young people. Cooperative studies by citizens and school people usually pay off in the form of better schools. For example, the Governor's Fact-Finding Commission in Connecticut has helped organize in many of the towns active citizens' committees. As creative leaders in schools keep such interest alive, they do a great deal to improve conditions for young people, both in and out of schools.

Use of the school as a center of community life. Increased use of the school by the community as a center should be one criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of curriculum improvement programs. Some schools have become real centers for community activities, such as square dancing, plays and similar entertainments. In other schools, community problems are discussed, or a joint school-community library has been established. One school in the South operates canning plants, feed-processing mills and other services that play a vital part in raising the standard of living in the community. Agriculture shops in some schools are available to farmers for repair of their own equipment.

Adult education is an important part of the school's services to the community. A program of this type has become basic to an educational program that sets out to improve community life. Forums for discussion of social issues, the study of home and family living, the use of school shops and libraries, all help to enrich the lives of people in the community. Community colleges have come to see as their function the continued education of youth and adults. In addition to their vocational curriculum for community occupations, some community colleges have large enrollments among the adult population for evening classes in cultural subjects, current affairs, hobbies, skills for home building, landscaping, community planning and many other areas.

Use of the community as a laboratory. A school improvement program should aim toward extending the school in the commu-

nity. In many schools children take field trips, bring in visitors to serve as resource persons, and study their community through various other experiences. Secondary schools provide for the study of problems important to youth and to society, and also encourage young people to go out into the community and gather facts and opinions about significant local community problems.

Youths should also participate according to their ability in community planning councils which provide for community recreation, community improvement projects and other civic affairs. One school system has established a Junior Council from the secondary schools which makes recommendations to the City Council for improvement in civic affairs that affect youth.

Using the community as a laboratory for work experience is becoming recognized as an important phase of education. Business and industrial establishments thus become partners with the school in the education of youth. Valuable work experience is a planned part of the secondary school program, rather than an out-of-school activity.

How Good School-Community Programs Operate

ILLUSTRATION ONE—Identifying community resources

In one school a class of older children, beginning with their own parents and grandparents, set up a card-file of all the adults in their school neighborhood. This file, listing special interests and other pertinent information, was used by the class and later by the room mothers, PTA officers, Neighborhood Association and Adult Education Department, to help locate resources needed for program planning, for a particular study or survey, and for making available opportunities through which more and more people of the community could contribute to and feel themselves an important part of the neighborhood life.

ILLUSTRATION TWO—Improving home conditions

A home economics class in a rural high school became concerned about the problems of home living which class members were actually facing. Working and planning closely with their parents and teachers, the girls were responsible for building better storage and closet facilities at home, planning and rearranging their kitchens more efficiently, providing better lighting and more healthful as well as economical heating and ventilation, taking better care of the family's clothing, planning more

nutritious though inexpensive menus for the week, and arranging quieter and more private conditions for study.

All the homes in the neighborhood responded with enthusiasm and industry. One girl reported to her classmates and teacher that, as a Christmas present her family was giving her "the right" to a particular corner as a "study" in their rather crowded home. With her father's help, she made a desk of an old table, cushioned a chair, refinished a makeshift bookcase, and built an inexpensive screen. Later she gave a report of this project of which she, her family, friends and teachers were proud.

ILLUSTRATION THREE—*Youth and parent forums*

One home-room group in a high school took the initiative in setting up a series of weekly forums, in which an understanding teacher or principal serves as chairman and high-school youth and their parents participate with great sincerity. They discuss such problems as: How can use of the family car be shared harmoniously? Should high-school students have to accept the religion of their parents? How late should high-school students be allowed to stay out at night? Should high-school students have the right to select their own clothes?

Discussion of these topics proved of value both to the young people and their parents, in helping each to respect the opinion of the other, to talk through their problems intelligently and thoughtfully at home as well as at school, and in many instances to work out solutions satisfactory to all concerned.

ILLUSTRATION FOUR—*Parents work for the school*

In one school system, committees of parents were set up in each school neighborhood to work closely with the board of education, superintendent, teachers, educational representatives of civic groups and organizations, and especially with parent groups and their neighbors. Their job was to interpret the school program and the urgent need for approving the proposed school budget, and to solicit support for the passage of this budget by the city council. PTA meetings, interviews, radio speeches, editorials, door-to-door canvassing and over-the-fence conversations were used effectively in this campaign. As a result of the work of these committees, the school budget, for the first time in many years, was passed substantially as proposed. All school personnel and citizens who worked toward this end realize as never before, the schools are truly theirs.

ILLUSTRATION FIVE—*A cooperative community study*

Included as part of the seminar plan at one state teachers college is an opportunity for a group of students to live in a particular community and to study it intensively. Usually a rural community is selected. One year, however, a school neighborhood in a city system was chosen. To plan for the study, a group of fathers and mothers were invited to have dinner at the home of the principal. Officers of the PTA, the Neighborhood Association (which includes persons who do not have children in school) and the Park Association (embracing several neighborhoods) were present at this meeting. Purposes of the study were explained and plans were made for a very full and profitable week. Activities included exploratory trips through the neighborhood; visits to homes, housing projects, institutions and industrial plants; conversations with prominent citizens; and many visits to classes in session in the school.

The students heard the plans of the Neighborhood Association for welcoming new families into the area, for getting them into recreational activities and evening craft workshops or other classes, and for canvassing the neighborhood to encourage everyone to beautify homes and yards in keeping with landscaping for the proposed housing project. Many group discussions were held in the school throughout the week. The whole community took pride in the fact that it had been selected for study by this group of college students. Citizens helped with the study wherever and however they could. The school and neighborhood, as well as these students who were soon to be teachers, apparently gained much from this experience.

ILLUSTRATION SIX—*From contests to community improvement*

One school system became quite concerned about the emphasis which various civic groups always seemed to be putting upon the value of contests and competitive activities. This emphasis was not in line with the educational philosophy and program of the schools. It was decided, therefore, that a deliberate effort should be made by the schools to find ways of stressing cooperative, rather than competitive, ideas.

A short time later, a local group of the American Association of University Women planned a series of concerts for children, and offered a set of records to the child from each school who would sell the most tickets. School people discussed the plan with the AAUW committee and proposed that instead of their

sponsoring such a contest, they present the set of records to each school that participated in selling tickets. In this way, every child selling tickets would feel that his efforts were appreciated and that he was helping in a venture that was truly worth while. No child who had worked long and hard would be disappointed because one of his fellow pupils had sold tickets to someone in his territory or had sold a few more than he. The local group, after considerable discussion, agreed to this plan.

When the civic Clean-Up Committee proposed that a contest be held and that the child from each school who could make his yard look cleanest and most attractive be rewarded in a public way, the school staff proffered what seemed to them a better plan. Why not ask each school to consider with students, teachers and custodians (and parents, if they chose) the various ways in which they could contribute most to Clean-Up Week in their own neighborhood? Why not ask each school (or each classroom within the school) to write letters to the city's Clean-Up Committee, outlining their plans and suggestions for participating in the clean-up campaign or, better still, in a year-round program, together with the promise of periodic reports of what they were accomplishing? Newspaper and radio publicity could be a part of this kind of program quite as well as of the competitive kind. The schools would be challenged to be thorough, resourceful and original, and from time to time could pool their ideas. The committee agreed that this plan would probably stir up more genuine interest and action, would be of more value to the children and the community, and would serve their purposes just as well as a contest.

So in one program after another, the school people tried to help lay groups see value in cooperative, rather than competitive, ways of working. Not all the lay groups subscribed to this point of view, and some even felt that the schools were carrying this matter to an extreme. More and more, however, such groups came to understand the schools' viewpoint and began to explore and develop constructive proposals on their own.

ILLUSTRATION SEVEN—*Parent-school planning*

In one rural school where kindergartens had not been established, a group of interested mothers requested the board of education to provide kindergartens. Accompanying the request

was a sum of money to be spent for kindergarten equipment. Since space, as well as funds, had long been a prohibitive factor in starting kindergartens, the board of education invited these women to discuss both problems with them.

It soon became apparent that other people and organizations must be involved in this project. Therefore, several committees of interested parents, teachers, school administrators and townspeople in general became concerned not only in planning for the physical aspects of the program, but also in considering the needs of children. Study groups were started. Letters to the state department of education, the U. S. Office of Education and the state university brought considerable help. Plans were developed cooperatively for a demonstration kindergarten program in one of the schools for three weeks during the summer, with the kindergarten teacher from a near-by state teachers college in charge. Together, parents, teachers and school administrators observed modern kindergarten practices and joined in the discussion which followed the teaching.

While it is difficult to appraise the full significance of such a community undertaking, certain results are apparent. Parents learned to know one another better as they built or painted furniture, considered appropriate color schemes, or sewed drapes for the classroom. Civic organizations entered into the project by contributing a piano, a sandbox and other equipment. Parents, teachers and other citizens grew markedly in their understanding not only of a good kindergarten program, but of a desirable program for the whole school. Teachers developed skills in working more effectively with parents. And when new school buildings were being considered, the whole community joined enthusiastically in providing the necessary planning and support.

Changes in School Organization

The organization within a school or school system can either facilitate or impede the planning and development of a curriculum improvement program. Since most organizational practices in our schools are based upon past purposes of education, many changes in the present patterns of organizations may be urgently needed. Too frequently the worthy, well-conceived plans developed by teachers and others cannot be carried through successfully because of some block which is inherent in the type of organization which the school system has set up. For in-

stance, teachers in an elementary school decided to develop some life experience units for social studies. When they inquired about the possibility of developing such a program, they were told that the curriculum was organized centrally through curriculum committees' producing courses of study, and that all teachers were required to follow the outline provided by the central office.

Kinds of Changes Sought in School Organization

Making the individual school the basic unit for curriculum improvement. Since the modern curriculum is directly related to problems, concerns and interests of students, it is quite evident that the curriculum will vary from community to community, from school to school, and even from class to class. It is obvious, too, that a curriculum set up on a city-wide basis could not deal with the significant problems of all students in all schools and classes.

If the curriculum is to center upon the concerns of boys and girls, the ideal unit is the individual school and the classroom. In each school, teachers can plan for and with students whom they know and with whom they live. When this concept of responsibility for curriculum development is practiced, every teacher and every student can directly influence the curriculum. The principal becomes an instructional leader and with the faculty assumes responsibility for developing a program to meet the needs of the students in the school.

Providing a central organization for coordination of instruction. Although the individual school should be the primary unit for improving the curriculum, there are many problems and activities which arise in school systems that demand some kind of coordinating body or agency. Formerly, administrators assumed this function. In recent years central committees on instruction or curriculum councils have been organized, so that problems involving all schools in a system could be dealt with democratically. The responsibilities of such a central curriculum council have been described by Douglass and others in a recent publication.⁹

Methods of organizing a curriculum council will be described later in this book. Such a central body should be democratically

⁹ Douglass, Harl R., editor. *Education for Life Adjustment*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1950. p. 304-305.

conceived and organized. At no time should decisions be made which thwart or block individual schools in meeting the needs of their students.

Providing consultant or supervisory service divorced from administrative functions. In many school systems the function of supervision has been chiefly that of evaluation. In the modern school, however, supervision's function is that of service. When supervisors or consultants have responsibility for rating and other administrative duties, their opportunity to assist teachers is reduced to a minimum. The fear that teachers have of such supervisors blocks the possibility of their sharing experiences and working together toward a common goal. Teachers who are trying to develop a curriculum based upon life experiences of students need a great deal of help. This assistance can be given only by a person with special skill in working with others and by one who is free of all other responsibilities. It is important that supervisors be relieved of all administrative functions.

Several significant trends may be noted in the improvement of supervisory services. First, many schools are providing these services on call. In other words, the supervisor assists the teacher when asked to do so and the principal is responsible for opening the way for help wherever and whenever it is needed. Second, in some large systems there is a supervisor for each school, or several supervisors, each of whom works in only a few schools. Such arrangements enable the supervisor to develop an understanding, friendly relationship with a comparatively few teachers. Third, since there are never enough supervisors to work individually with all teachers, the trend is to set up group situations in which the supervisor can work on common problems with several teachers. This may be done in workshops or before and after school hours. In one school system, teachers may be released on school time to work with the consultant.

Reducing the size of school units and classes. Because school systems all over the country have been hard pressed for funds with which to provide adequate buildings and services for boys and girls, the trend has been toward constructing large buildings or adding to buildings so as to reduce costs. This trend has resulted in such large schools that in some the teachers do not even become acquainted with one another. Moreover, these schools usually draw pupils from such a wide area that the

creation of community consciousness often becomes impractical or nearly impossible.

In developing a life experience curriculum, good human relations among staff and students are of vital importance. Teachers should know one another well and have many opportunities to work together. Students, too, should come to know their teachers as well as one another.

Schools that are giving careful consideration to this matter are now drawing plans to reduce the size of school units as the system is expanded. In one school system, the plans call for a maximum of twenty teachers in any elementary school and thirty in a secondary school. At present, only one elementary school has more than twenty teachers and only the senior high school has a staff of more than thirty.

In rural areas where one- to four-teacher schools are common, the school may be too small to have adequate educational facilities and a total community program. The trend toward consolidation in many states has provided larger units which lend themselves to better human relations and a greater possibility for developing a community-school center. Where schools are of suitable size and "fit" the neighborhood, many possibilities exist for developing a year-round program.

The increase in student population in our schools, together with the lag in provision for buildings, has resulted in an increase in class size. If students and teachers are to work together on life problems, it is essential that class sizes be held to a minimum. Many teachers feel that they can carry on such a program if the maximum class size is thirty students; others feel that twenty-five or twenty would produce better results.

During the next fifteen years, billions of dollars should be spent for school buildings. If overly large units are constructed, however, teachers and pupils will suffer for the next fifty to sixty years. It is essential that administrators and boards of education give careful study to the future of education and to the kind of housing necessary to provide the best possible learning environment for children.

Arranging for teachers to be with students for longer periods of time. Guidance is a major function of a curriculum based upon the life experiences of young people. It should include:

Opportunities to solve, in a group situation, problems which are common to the group.

Provision for each individual to solve problems which are solely his concern.

Designation of a teacher who assumes major responsibility for the guidance of a number of students; making provision for the teacher to know each student well.

A continuous relationship, in both group and face-to-face situations, between the counseling teacher and the student.

If these are reasonable criteria upon which to base a guidance program, it is evident that teacher-student relationships must be extended over a period of time.

The unit type of organization was introduced when educators became concerned about the emotional, social and physical growth of children as well as their intellectual development. Teachers in the unit type of organization live with children, come to know them well, and assist them in the solution of their many problems. There is a growing belief that when the child has only one year with a teacher, he can feel no continuity in guidance. For this reason, teachers in many schools continue with the same group of children for two, three or four years.

In secondary schools, the core or general education program is being developed for the same purpose as is served by the unit type of organization in elementary schools. In the core program, which is based upon the problems of youth, a teacher begins with a group of students in the seventh grade and continues with them during the eighth and ninth grades for two or three periods a day. A similar program is being developed in many senior high schools with a reduced amount of time—usually one or two periods a day.

Extending the period of education. One of the most recent significant changes in school organization is found in such new developments as nursery schools, community colleges and twelve-month schools.

Research findings in the growth and development of pre-school children have greatly strengthened the nursery school movement. Many school systems already provide regular school programs for four-year-olds, while other systems are planning for even younger children. If these developments continue in the next twenty-five years, the nursery school will be as common as the kindergarten is today.

Since the labor market does not absorb all high-school graduates who do not go to college and since the first two years of

college are chiefly general education, the community college is a natural development which can provide for both groups of young people. For both groups two more years of general education are provided, and in addition, for those who do not go further in college, specific vocational training is given.

Another innovation is the twelve months' school year. Those who are experimenting with the lengthened school year believe that its adoption would necessitate many changes in the instructional program. Many firsthand experiences can be introduced into the curriculum in the longer program, and a more leisurely, informal procedure may be planned. Much attention should be given to such experiences as camping and a variety of educational and recreational activities.

Gradual transition between completion of formal schooling and starting to work. Most students who finish high school or drop out before graduation consider their formal education completed. This probably is due to the fact that there is little relationship between the school curriculum and whatever occupation they may expect to follow. It is generally recognized that schools are not equipped to train students in all the many specific skills demanded for jobs in business and industry. Further, it is questionable whether schools should attempt to duplicate the equipment, machines and floor space of industry and business. School systems that recognize this fact have found other ways of accomplishing the same ends. Chief among these are the related training or cooperative education programs.

Based upon community surveys and a well-developed guidance program, the plan is for students to learn mechanical or business skills on the job, usually during one-half of the school day, and to develop skills in human relations in the school through further study and consideration of the problems which they encounter while at work. In many localities, both industry and business have come to recognize the value in a continuing program of this type.

Needless to say, an adult education program based upon the actual needs of a community would do much to encourage the continuation of education throughout adult life. Actually, too many adult programs have been developed with little knowledge of real needs; hence few adults take advantage of them.

Greater flexibility in the school program. Most curriculums are still based upon rather rigid courses of study which in the

main are organized around subject matter. Some states have courses of study which teachers are expected to follow. Fortunately, however, in many school systems deviations from the prescribed curriculums are permitted, at least to some degree. Usually where there is no written course of study, the textbook becomes the guide for the teachers and students.

Time schedules in many schools are not flexible. It is still possible to identify schools according to what a teacher of a certain grade is teaching at a certain time. Recently, in an elementary school, following the noon hour, a child came running in with a polliwog. He was excited and full of questions to ask the teacher. But the teacher did not respond, and later when she was asked why she failed to seize upon the opportunity as a favorable teaching-learning situation, she replied that she was required to teach reading during that period.

Wherever such inflexibility in the instructional program exists, there is little opportunity to deal with real problems of boys and girls or to help them develop desirable democratic behaviors. We must have faith in teachers; faith that with help and with opportunities to plan together with pupils and others, they can develop a curriculum which will achieve the finest goals of modern education.

A comprehensive, effective in-service education program. The transition from teaching for retention of facts to teaching for behavior development through helping students solve life problems is a slow, arduous task for most teachers. Their pre-service education has been based largely upon the acquisition of information. If we expect them to develop skill in dealing with the problems of boys and girls, we must provide help in reorientation of their thinking and in developing new procedures and techniques of teaching. This requires a comprehensive, well planned in-service education program. Hope for the new approach in education lies in the effectiveness of the help we can provide teachers as they work with children. Various in-service education procedures have been described earlier in this chapter.

Changes in Materials

There was a time when school people thought a single textbook could provide sufficient educational experience for children. But now that education has reached beyond the subject-

matter approach to a curriculum based upon life problems of the learner, the need for a variety of materials and tools of learning becomes imperative. Since education deals with problems of life itself, it is essential that all available resources be used in an attempt to solve problems which are of concern to boys and girls as they work and play together. For this reason, new kinds and sources of materials are being discovered and new ways of using these materials are being developed.

Kinds of Changes We Seek in Materials

All teachers cooperatively developing instructional aids. Common practice in developing a teaching guide, a resource or teaching unit, is to place the responsibility upon a small committee of teachers. Members of the committee gain much from the processes involved in developing the teaching aid. They get new ideas and new ways of thinking and working, as a result of the interaction of the group. Thus, while the finished brochure provides much help to committee members in the improvement of teaching, the material has little value to teachers who have not participated in its development. They did not participate in the thinking and the group discussion which are so essential to the usefulness of materials developed to aid teachers in their work. In almost every school system, mounds of materials produced by committees are collecting dust on shelves or in desk drawers.

If materials of this nature are to be meaningful and useful, all teachers who use them should participate in their development and production. Most instructional aids should be produced in individual schools where only small groups of teachers are involved and where opportunities can be provided for all to participate. In one school system, teaching units are produced in each school. A manual and form for planning and developing an instructional unit has been developed by teachers, and is used effectively. Whenever aids for teachers are produced on a city-wide basis, all teachers who expect to use the materials should participate actively in their development. Recently, a guide for teaching language arts was developed in a school system through the active participation of every language arts teacher in the junior high schools. This method of developing teacher aids demands new techniques and procedures of working. The method of wide participation may at times be slower than the committee method, but it will prove much more

fruitful in that it actually influences individual behavior and changes instruction.

Providing materials centers or libraries for all schools. Most secondary schools have libraries—too few elementary schools have them. These libraries are sometimes not functional, for the reason that they are not arranged or equipped to fulfill the material needs of the classroom. In the first place, the arrangement may not lend itself to the kinds of activities and needs of modern classroom procedure. Usually a teacher cannot take his class to the library for gathering information on problems under consideration. Either the library is used as a study hall, or the class would disturb individuals who are at work in it. Few libraries are arranged so that it is convenient for classes to work in them as the need arises. Few libraries have committee rooms where small groups of students can work together with reading and other resources close at hand.

Secondly, materials in libraries usually consist only of books and related tools. For this reason, students have to secure information from many sources other than libraries in order to bring a variety of materials to bear upon the solution of significant problems. Libraries should have maps, globes, charts, information about excursions, speakers and other community resources, audio-visual aids and a host of other materials which will assist teachers and students in a full exploration of the problems being considered in the classroom. In other words, the library should become a materials center to which teachers and students may go for many kinds of materials and to discover what resources are available.

Utilizing community resources. One of the most promising methods for making the school a part of the community is to bring about more effective utilization of community resources. The community offers many rich resources for a curriculum based upon the life problems of boys and girls. Actually it should be the laboratory for much of our work in the classroom.

In any community it is essential that a comprehensive survey be made in order to furnish teachers with complete information about the services and materials that are available. Possibilities for field trips and excursions are seldom fully explored; consequently, teachers are not aware of what the community has to offer. Another rich resource may be found in the people, many of whom can bring to the classes living experiences which are of

untold value. Most adults of the community are willing to provide such services to the schools.

Helping teachers develop skill in using diversified materials. Many teachers have never participated in or observed a learning situation in which modern teaching materials are being used effectively. It is important, therefore, that help be given teachers in developing skill in using a wide variety of materials. Librarians in some schools have helped teachers expand their concepts with regard to materials and their use. In other schools, teachers who have developed these skills are given time in the daily schedule to work with other teachers. Some schools employ a materials consultant who serves all schools in the system.

Obviously, a curriculum dealing with life problems must draw upon many resources. Since the teacher is the key to effective use of the resources, it is important that a plan of action be developed to help teachers become skilled in the use of many kinds of materials.

Providing materials suitable to the interests, needs and reading levels of children. Materials in many schools have been chosen for their possible contribution to the exploration of subject matter. Schools that are changing from the subject-centered approach to the life experience approach, therefore, soon discover that the materials available are not in accord with their new purposes. Material needs must be re-examined so that teachers and students can be furnished with materials useful to the solving of life problems. Too often, instructional units fail because appropriate materials are not available.

It is important to recognize that many kinds of materials will be needed in developing a life experience curriculum. Quantities of new reading materials based upon problems of children are now available. Many of these materials cannot be used in their entirety because the problems considered cover a wide range of development. Hence they can be utilized only in part as references. Since the reading levels of pupils differ widely, it is very important that books suitable to their varying reading abilities be chosen. In addition to books, other materials which are often more effective may be used. Maps, globes, charts, films, excursions, speakers, recordings, demonstrations, experiments and other resources may be chosen for their application to a particular life situation being dealt with in the classroom.

When materials are not available, these can often be produced locally, through the cooperative efforts of teachers and students. In one city where a program on living in the city and state is developed with pupils, the department of instruction, with the help of teachers, has produced a book which has proved exceedingly helpful. In another city, the general education teachers have developed a manual of mathematics problems related to health instruction which teachers have found very useful. A junior high school in another city has begun a library of tape recordings to use in a unit on vocations which is taught in the ninth grade. Pupils take the tape recorder to persons working in certain vocations and interview them, using questions that the pupils have decided are important. Many schools are developing recordings which are used in the classroom. The possibilities of local production of materials by both students and teachers are unlimited.

Encouraging publishing and producing companies to provide the kinds of materials needed in a modern program of education. Publishing companies and producers of instructional materials will develop the kinds of materials that are needed and demanded by teachers. When sufficiently strong demands come from teachers for more functional materials, items of this nature will be forthcoming.

There is great need for publishers to pioneer in developing new materials based upon the problems and concerns of children and young people. In order that this new development may be accelerated, teachers not only should inform publishers of their needs, but also should participate in production of the new materials. Only teachers who work closely with students can know their problems and know the techniques of helping them find solutions. More teachers should become writers and producers of instructional films and other materials.

Great need exists for books and other materials that center sharply upon the problems of boys and girls. For example, in the area of vocations, elementary school children have problems which differ from those of junior and senior high-school students. Books are needed which deal with problems of children at various maturity levels. Likewise, materials are needed which provide data for the solution of problems. Materials should be so organized that each individual may draw his own conclusions and develop a plan of action accordingly.

Needs for materials can possibly be met if teachers make

known their requirements to publishers and producers of instructional materials.

Selecting materials cooperatively. In some schools, the administrator or supervisor selects materials. In others, the selection is made by a small committee of teachers. This does not, however, represent best democratic practice, since all teachers concerned should have an opportunity to participate. A teacher who has had no chance to examine and study materials in relation to what is happening in his classroom probably will not use very effectively the materials selected by such a committee. In one school system, this procedure is used:

All teachers in each school participate in a survey of needed materials.

These needs are referred to the central curriculum council by the school representative.

The council studies and organizes the needs, and appoints committees in each area.

Each committee sets up objectives for the course or situation in which the needs exist.

The objectives are referred back to the teachers concerned, for their criticism and suggestions. This procedure is continued until the objectives are agreed upon.

Publishers and producers of materials are informed of the needs and given copies of the objectives so that they may submit materials for examination.

The committee screens the materials sent in, eliminating those which obviously do not meet the objectives.

One copy of each piece of selected material is ordered for the school concerned.

Teachers in each school have opportunity to examine and use the materials over a period of several months.

Each teacher evaluates the material on the basis of the objectives.

The central committee uses the evaluation to make the choice of materials.

A list of materials is then sent to each school.

Each school orders, within its budget allowance, the materials needed by its teachers.

This is one way of selecting instructional material democratically and cooperatively. Every teacher participates and sees the result of his participation.

One of the most important factors in this procedure is that teachers become familiar with many kinds of materials.

How To Effect Changes in Materials

ILLUSTRATION ONE—*A check list of materials*

Material from the ACEI bulletin, *Recommended Equipment and Supplies*,¹⁰ was adapted to the needs of one school district and organized into two check lists; one for primary grades, and one for intermediate grades. To this list were added supplementary and regular textbooks. Purposes of this survey were:

To plan our purchasing over a longer period of time.

To see where our money actually is going.

To buy materials and supplies which will more adequately balance a program for boys and girls.

To re-examine our program cooperatively, in order to see how present materials may be utilized more wisely, as well as how they may be supplemented.

Each classroom teacher prepared two check lists, one of which was given to the principal or supervisor as a guide for buying. The other list, checked in the same way, was filed in the district office. Also, two diagrams were prepared, one showing the room as it was, and the other showing recommended changes for the room. One copy of this was filed at the school, and one in the district office.

So far, we believe our greatest gain has been in working together on a common problem. This cooperative work has pointed the way toward increasing teacher participation in evaluating and in selecting materials.

ILLUSTRATION TWO—*Learning to use a variety of materials*

In one school, the principal and teachers are opening many avenues for learning how to use a variety of materials. They have regular staff meetings to study cooperatively the problems which they meet. They share ideas with one another. They invite near-by resource persons to help them—the county agent, specialists from the office of education, county supervisors, parents.

¹⁰ Association for Childhood Education International. *Recommended Equipment and Supplies*. The Association, 1200 Fifteenth Street, N. W., Washington 5, D. C. 44 p.

Teachers invite available resource persons to work with children in the classroom. Some examples are: One parent instructed seventh-grade children in making belts and billfolds of leather; the county agent helped upper-grade children locate and use bulletins and maps relating to a study of soils in their community; a beautician in the community gave the class suggestions on care of the hair; a policeman showed children how to avoid accidents on the streets.

Children have learned how to make kodachrome slides to illustrate some of their own work, how to make the hall more attractive, how to knit sweaters, how to work in groups, and how to use printed materials to solve their problems.

Teachers, principals, parents and children, in cooperation with the Department of Rural Education, NEA, completed one year a motion picture showing the work they are doing to improve the quality of their living. The picture is entitled, "School in Centreville."

Changes in Ways of Working Together

All of the changes explored and discussed in this chapter involve changes in ways of working together. Development of a comprehensive, effective curriculum improvement program depends upon the skills and attitudes learned in working together toward common goals. It is therefore of prime importance that the best democratic techniques be discovered and used as administrators, teachers, supervisors, students, parents and other adults work together for children and youth. Only through such continuous and experimental procedures can we find ways of working which will help our young people grow and develop in the democratic way of living.

Kinds of Changes We Seek in Ways of Working

Studying, practicing and evaluating group procedures. A school system, a faculty or a group of teachers that desires to learn how to work together more effectively might well develop plans toward the achieving of this goal.

Many schools are experimenting with ways of identifying problems, methods of determining leadership roles, and procedures of achieving full and free participation of everyone in the planning group. Rather common practice is to have one in the group designated as an observer. The observer's function is to assist the group in evaluating the process that has been used

in arriving at decisions. It is most desirable that good group techniques be employed in all kinds of group situations, faculty meetings, committee meetings, parent-teacher meetings, curriculum planning meetings and others. There is no one right way to achieve skill in working together democratically. Hope for the development of better skills lies in experimentation.

Improving communication among schools and within schools. One great barrier to developing a school improvement program is a breakdown in the lines of communication. Much experimentation is needed to develop new techniques of communication. If it were possible to have everyone participate fully in each new development, the problem of communication would be reduced to a minimum. In a large school system this is often impossible. In individual schools this goal, through careful planning and organizing can usually be achieved.

The use of school bulletins and newsletters has not solved the problem. Much that needs to be communicated to teachers about such matters as the process of reaching decisions cannot easily be transmitted by the written word. One of the most promising developments in this regard is the curriculum council which is described elsewhere in this book. Representatives from each school who serve on the council can help in many ways to keep the lines of communication open and provide opportunities for all teachers to participate in making decisions.

If plans are carefully developed, little excuse remains for poor communication within an individual school. All matters related to instructional improvement should be the concern of all teachers; and if plans are developed cooperatively, the problem of communication is largely taken care of.

Perhaps the key to communication is participation. If we guard zealously the right of every teacher to share in curriculum improvement and in school policy making, plans can usually be developed to make such participation possible.

Clarifying and agreeing upon aims which all may strive to achieve. One of the important principles of cooperative planning is that teachers and others participating in the planning need clearly defined objectives upon which all are agreed. Frequently, group process is stymied because the participants are not in accord about purposes. There should be not only agreement on the over-all goals of education, but also a common understanding of the objectives of the project for which plans

are being developed. The specific purposes should be related to the general goals. If such relationship is not evident, it may be possible for teachers to agree that education should help boys and girls develop democratic ways of behaving, and yet at the same time to deny this major aim by planning the complete program for the youngsters. Goals must be realistic; they should be derived from the problems which the school faces in providing meaningful learning situations for children.

Regarding the individual school as the basic unit for improving the curriculum. Reasons for this concept have been explored in the discussion of changes in organization. The individual school is the ideal unit for experimenting with better ways of working together. Teachers and administrators in a school have common problems which may serve as the basis for cooperative planning.

In one school, the faculty, during the pre-session planning week, identifies a problem which teachers think is most significant in their work with children. Plans are then developed for solving the problem. This becomes the one project of the faculty until the job is completed. Through this procedure many new ways of working together are discovered, and the curriculum is improved.

Providing opportunities and time for teachers to plan and work together. Teachers in many schools do not work together largely because there are no opportunities to do so. It is the function of leadership to plan with teachers so that they may identify problems of common concern and interest. When this is done and teachers recognize that through planning together their work with children is improved, they usually are willing and eager to work together toward the solution of significant problems. In addition to opportunities for cooperation, it is important that time be allowed for planning. Many teachers are willing to spend time before and after school, but most of them feel that some time should be provided during the school day.

Finding Ways of Working Together

ILLUSTRATION ONE—*The Glenn Ranch conference*¹¹

Friday midnight saw the last member of the central office staff straggle in to find his sleeping accommodations for the

¹¹ A conference of the central office staff, Pasadena City Schools.

Glenn Ranch Conference. This meeting was scheduled for five days in late August and early September in the San Bernardino Mountains at a modest resort which provided comfortable living quarters, adequate food and recreational facilities.

The conference had been decided upon the previous March at a dinner meeting of the central office staff, consisting of all those in administrative and supervisory positions. At this meeting the staff agreed that much good would be derived if they could all get together for a few days' time in an isolated atmosphere to discuss educational problems, to live together, to play together, and to learn to know one another personally as well as professionally.

An arrangements committee found a suitable site for the conference and did all the negotiating for dates, food and recreational facilities. Another committee was assigned to develop the program of the conference. These two committees worked together over a period of months.

The program committee decided that the time would best be spent in considering four major problems that had been identified by the teaching staff during the previous school year. These problems were: (a) guidance and counseling, (b) activating the "Report of the Fifty-Two" (a compilation of recommendations of the personnel of the schools who met in fifty-two discussion groups during 1948-49), (c) orientation and in-service education of probationary teachers, and (d) squaring our practices with our knowledge of child growth and development.

It was decided that each day should begin with a general session, at which time one of these four problems would be discussed with the total group. Following the general session, each member chose to participate in a smaller group to discuss one of the four problems. Membership in the same group was continuous throughout the entire conference, so that if Group A were considering guidance and counseling, for instance, its members would have four days' time in which to develop their considerations. Generous blocks of time were allowed for recreation, and the conference ended with two evaluation meetings, each two hours in length.

Recommendations and suggestions that came out of the conference were of high quality. Much of the central office staff discussion during the next school year was based on these recommendations. Considerable thought was given at the conference to ways of sharing the thinking and discussion of the

central office staff with the teaching group. Each principal agreed to be responsible for developing lines of communication with his teachers.

The most significant outcome of the conference, however, was in developing more informal ways of working as a staff. The camp atmosphere lent itself to informality. Planning and working together helped to lessen long-established tensions, and many individuals who had been isolated were brought into the group at least to some degree. Individuals not ordinarily considered leaders assumed positions of leadership. This was due in part to the fact that the living situation gave opportunity for a wider variety of leadership to emerge.

It was a forward step for the central office staff to be considering problems which teachers had considered the most important issues facing the school system. Time and again, when there was inclination toward attempting to by-pass or to postpone consideration, someone would call attention to the fact that teachers felt this was an important problem needing *action*. Thus the aims of the school system were clarified, as they grew out of consideration of actual problems faced by the school.

Some shortcomings of the conference as suggested at the evaluation meeting were:

Definite commitments were too few; in other words, there was sometimes too much talking without action.

Leadership for the conference was too limited. Some persons contributed several times in general sessions, while others failed to participate.

Insufficient time was given to an analysis of group process.

The group did not sit down and try to learn how it could operate better as a group.

The central office staff would have profited by having teacher representation.

This simple evaluation helped to improve the lines of communication, about which the group was quite concerned.

Group members were so enthusiastic about the conference that they decided to schedule a spring week-end for further work together, and to make the August meeting a regular annual event.

Seven kinds of changes that are needed to improve the curriculum have been dealt with in this chapter. These changes relate to the professional staff, teaching-learning situations, pupil behavior, community relationships, organization of the school, instructional materials, and ways of working. Guiding principles for initiating desirable changes are the following:

1. Significant changes in the professional staff result from cooperative curriculum planning, working together on educational problems, experimentation with promising procedures and content, and study of human growth and development.

2. Some promising means for in-service growth of the professional staff are study groups, educational workshops, in-service courses, curriculum committee service, attendance at conferences, clinics and demonstrations, school visitations, consultant services, and action research.

3. A curriculum improvement program should be concerned with the teaching-learning situation in both school and community. Improvement in the school plant, equipment and supplies, and use of community resources, community services and opportunities for children and youth, are important in a comprehensive improvement program.

4. The ultimate goal of curriculum change is improved pupil behavior along such lines as these:

- Ability to define and to solve problems that are meaningful and important.

- Diversity of interests and development of new interests.

- Growth in ability to understand and to appraise oneself.

- Increasing skill in communication.

- Active participation in citizenship processes and responsibilities.

- Wholesome attitudes and increasing skills in human relations.

- Ability to evaluate critically and to use wisely sources of information.

- Self-direction and independence.

- Taking responsibility for one's actions.

- Initiative and creativeness.

5. Curriculum improvement should be concerned with the needs, problems and interests of boys and girls and with the democratic processes which pupils need in order to meet life situations successfully.

6. The curriculum should help pupils to change old behaviors, to develop new behaviors, and to improve those behaviors which lend themselves to democratic living.

7. Improvement in community life and in school-community relationships is essential in curriculum improvement. Participation by lay citizens in curriculum planning and in operation of the school program is directly related to improved school support and public relations.

8. Changes in school organization may be necessary to achieve curriculum improvement. Plan of organization, staff-selection procedures, school size, class size, daily schedule, services from the central office, curriculum planning arrangements, and faculty meeting time may need to be changed to effect improvement.

9. Improvement in instructional materials and their use are often essential in curriculum change. The following may be important in the local situation: cooperative production of instructional materials, more effective use of commercial materials, better selection of teaching aids, establishment of materials centers, development of professional libraries, and use of community resources.

10. Finally, improvement in ways of working together is significant in curriculum development. Developments in teacher-pupil planning, group dynamics, sociometric techniques and intergroup education promise effective aid in curriculum improvement.

CHAPTER IV

Organizing for School Improvement

Organization Should Reflect Educational Viewpoint

ORGANIZATIONAL patterns tend to become crystallized. As a result, they may persist with only slight modification long after the purposes for which they were established have changed. This is one reason why the organizational pattern or structure often constitutes a major barrier to progress in school improvement. For example, there was a time when the primary purpose of schooling was to transmit to learners the content of various subject fields and to drill them in certain limited skills of reading, writing and arithmetic. Under such circumstances it may have been appropriate to have an organization for curriculum improvement based only on the work of subject-matter specialists who gave major attention to the continuous revision of outlines or courses of study in the various subject fields. The primary purpose of schooling at the present time, however, tends more toward that of helping learners deal more effectively with the problems which they encounter in all areas of living and toward using more effectively a broad range of skills in reading, writing, arithmetic, graphic and symbolic expression and democratic personal relations. Schools are continuously seeking organizational forms which will facilitate attainment of these goals.

Clarification of this educational objective has been accompanied by a re-definition of the curriculum. In an earlier

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period it seemed appropriate and logical to view the curriculum as a course of study or as facts to be learned. In view of today's emphasis on helping students deal more effectively with the many and varied life situations which they encounter, it is more realistic to give attention to the actual *experiences* of learners. Curriculum is thus defined with increasing frequency as the experiences of learners under the direction of the school rather than as the course of study, the materials to be covered or the exact course to be run by the learner in achieving the purposes of schooling.

Individual Practice Reflects School Improvement

The newer purposes of education, as well as the newer concept of curriculum, necessitate a modification of viewpoint regarding curriculum improvement. As previous chapters have indicated, school programs are improved as the individual teacher increases his effectiveness in guiding students in learning from and through their experiences. Improvement of school programs is likely to result when professional educators learn how to (a) study learners, their needs, their motivations, their growth and development, their problems encountered in various areas of living and the means for helping them to cope more effectively with these problems; (b) study communities and the broad social scene to discover how learners can draw upon and utilize the social environment and to discover the situations which learners should master for effective living; (c) clarify concepts as to the kind of person which the school seeks to develop; (d) evaluate the effectiveness of the school program and make corrections in practices and procedures in terms of purposes sought; and (e) discover and use physical resources and materials which are most likely to further the purposes sought.

School improvement is likely to result when those associated with the program get new insights and understandings as to the job to be done and develop skills which are appropriate for implementing these insights and understandings. In-service education and curriculum improvement have an identical focus. In-service education should meet the need for continued education of professional personnel if educational programs are to be improved. Curriculum improvement is made possible only through continued education of the professional personnel. In the case of in-service education or of curriculum improvement,

continued education of professional personnel is necessary. In analyzing how schools can organize for program improvement, these concepts of the curriculum and of the means to its improvement will be used. Two implications seem to be inherent in these concepts.

Curriculum Organization Is a Continuing Process

Organizing for school improvement is a process of continuous facilitation of the educational program, rather than the act of establishing an organizational pattern or structure. Organizing for school improvement is a process of systematizing and arranging for the effective employment of human and material resources toward attainment of specific objectives. School improvement is dependent upon change in the individuals involved. This suggests the desirability of organizing the program in terms of specific groups of people with consideration of their interests, their backgrounds of experience and the conditions which they encounter.

Problems of program improvement vary from situation to situation and from time to time. This suggests the need for flexibility in organization. Each program must be adapted to the particular conditions which it is intended to serve. The personnel and their background, experience and relationships; the existing or previous organization; and the special problems existing at the time are all factors to be considered in organizing for curriculum improvement.

In many highly centralized school systems today, authority in curriculum matters resides with subject supervisors. Systems with such an organization face very definite problems of coordination among specialists, if well-balanced and unified programs of education within individual school units are to be developed. In contrast, some school systems have a high degree of decentralization, in that authority for curriculum improvement resides in the individual school units which are led by individuals with responsibility and time for curriculum work. Such systems face quite different problems in developing a unified, balanced educational program.

Organization Affects Teacher Morale

The effectiveness of any organization can be tested in several different ways, but the most important tests relate to its influence on people. The *people* involved in the educative process

are the most important single factor in curriculum improvement. Hence any organization should be checked continuously to discover the nature of its influence on human relations and the extent to which it brings about conditions favorable to program improvement. The ultimate test of an organization for curriculum improvement is the extent to which learners are developing the kinds of behavior which are sought.

Observation of numerous school systems in operation, as well as studies of teacher morale, substantiates the belief that creative intelligence and artistry of individual teachers are released most effectively when staff members have good morale and a strong sense of direction. The effect of organization upon morale therefore becomes an important consideration.

Individual School or Central Office as Organizing Center

Formerly an organized curriculum improvement program depended upon the central offices of city, state and county systems for its initiation and guidance. Persons specifically trained for direction of curriculum improvement programs exerted leadership toward re-definition of objectives or development of new courses of study. Individual teachers or principals were occasionally brought from local building units to participate in over-all planning. The implicit assumption, however, was that curriculum change and improvement could be accomplished on a uniform, system-wide basis, solely through development of new over-all plans. Specialists in various subject areas such as handwriting, reading or arithmetic were given responsibility for supervising the teaching and making sure that over-all plans were put into operation.

Educators have gradually recognized, however, that much of the over-all planning of this earlier period did not substantially modify actual classroom practice. Closer analysis of results has suggested the necessity for giving increased attention to the individual teacher. Realization has grown that the curriculum or the experiences of learners change and improve only as those who are most directly involved examine their goals, improve their understandings and increase their skill in performing the tasks necessary to reach newly defined goals. This places focus upon teacher, lay citizen and learner as partners in curriculum im-

provement and as the individuals who must change, if there is to be curriculum change. It shifts attention away from the presentation of over-all paper plans to the necessity for working with individuals. Thus, it has been only natural that the individual building unit should come increasingly to be the center for curriculum work. Yet, there still exists considerable uncertainty as to how the individual school and the central office can supplement each other most effectively. The purpose of subsequent sections of this chapter is to explore this relationship.

Role of the Individual School

In one midwestern community, individual schools have long been encouraged to work on curriculum problems. During one year the twenty elementary schools in the system were at work on somewhat different problems. One elementary school staff was studying ways by which it might help boys and girls obtain a better understanding of the influence of science and technology on their lives. Teachers were reading and discussing books dealing with the social impact of science. With the help of an outside consultant they were performing simple experiments and becoming familiar with places in the community to which field trips might be made.

Another elementary school was studying how to involve more parents in the school program. As a result, one night a week was set aside for parent activities in shops, classrooms and library. Teachers provided most of the initial leadership; lay citizens gradually assumed more and more responsibility. Parents became interested in improving the outdoor play area and contributed many hours of labor to the construction of special facilities.

In a third elementary school, teachers were concerned with ways in which they might organize the instructional program around the needs of boys and girls. They spent many hours with parents and other citizens, as well as with the children themselves, canvassing the activities in which children engaged outside of school and the problems which they encountered. Individual rooms gradually assumed specific responsibilities for distributing milk during rest periods, selling simple supplies through a school store, and caring for and distributing the games used during the noon hour.

One of the three junior high schools centered attention upon personal and social problems of boys and girls. As a result, the

staff engaged in cooperative development of a proposed general education course which would use a block of time during each child's day. A number of teachers were anxious to break away from the typical English and social studies program which they believed was tending to dominate the general education course. They were troubled, however, about finding ways in which they could plan cooperatively in order to provide a sound, balanced program.

Teachers in the senior high school experienced some difficulties in working as a total staff group. Nevertheless, some curriculum development activity was under way. One fairly large group of teachers was working on the program of general education. It also was making a study, in cooperation with a group of science and mathematics teachers, of ways in which the general education program might reflect more adequately the influence of science and technology upon our everyday lives. Another group of teachers, including the specialized guidance personnel, was developing a work experience program.

Many Activities Under Way Simultaneously

This sketchy description of a portion of the work under way within a school system in one year is not presented as an ideal example. It should serve, however, as a concrete illustration of the variety of individual school activities which may be undertaken simultaneously in a single city system. A review of these enterprises indicates that they have within them possibilities for many activities which have been mentioned earlier and which are often regarded as important in curriculum work. Some of these activities are studies of learners, studies of the community, clarification of goals, evaluation of the effectiveness of the school's program, and the use of resources and materials.

This type of development program appears to be justified on other bases also. If the curriculum consists of the experiences of learners, the activities in which these teachers were engaged pointed rather directly at changing the experiences available through the schools of this community. Individual teachers, who would be largely responsible for bringing about change in these experiences, were learning through their own study and participation how changes are made. Parents who were involved came to a better understanding of new goals for education and discovered a more vital role for themselves in relation to the educative process. Certainly, children's needs were given

more consideration in planning and study activities of this kind than in the usual type of in-service work. There was indication also that the individual schools were involving their immediate communities in their programs to a greater extent than they formerly had done.

In the school situations just described, little has been said about sharing among schools. One may well ask whether there are profitable ways through which faculty groups can share their experiences with one another, and in the process possibly learn much from one another, thus reducing somewhat the amount of time and energy required in the separate solution of similar problems.

Relation of Individual School to Central Office

In addition to viewing the individual school as a center for curriculum study and improvement, its relationship to the central office should be considered. In one large city, teachers in individual buildings have been encouraged for a number of years to initiate their own curriculum projects and to request help as needed. Each school is represented by a teacher and the principal on a city-wide instructional council. Presumably all instructional policies are established by this group. Problems of general concern, however, are often approached on a city-wide basis. For example, committees or especially designated staff members will carry responsibility for developing a bulletin or providing a particular kind of resource much needed by a number of school staffs. Matters of budget for instructional activity, policies relative to releasing teachers for curriculum work, and other problems of finance and organization come before the group. Over-all problems, such as the community's reactions to education, are discussed by the group. These considerations may lead to a recommendation for action to be taken by individual building groups or in some cases to an over-all agreement on policy. Thus, while there is great emphasis on the local building unit for initiating curriculum improvement activities, there is also considerable guidance of local building effort through over-all policies and projects. Central office staff members participate on an equal basis with building representatives, but tend to contribute ideas and resources from an over-all vantage point as well as from their experience with several building units.

When the individual building unit is the organizing center for curriculum improvement, need arises for adequate channels

of communication with other units and with the over-all central group. The larger unit (in this example, the city) represents not only a community of interest among parents and lay citizens, but also a governmental, administrative and fiscal unit. These factors make necessary a considerable measure of coordination. If, however, there is to be coordination which permits individual units to retain a large degree of autonomy and independence of action, full participation of these units in the total process of coordination is undoubtedly necessary. It is obvious also that building units are too small to make it financially feasible for them to have available all the materials and specialized personnel which might be provided for them as participating parts of a larger unit. Yet, if there is to be appropriate use of such resources, staffs from all the schools must help in specifying which resources are needed and the ways in which they are to be used.

Experience with this type of central organization suggests that such a cooperative effort may have many values for the programs in the individual buildings. Activities in one school often stimulate other groups to deeper insights and to renewed efforts. Ways of working and of attacking problems are frequently transmitted from one school group to another. Even the recognition that another faculty group has similar problems is sometimes of value. Frequently two or more schools band together for a joint attack on similar or related problems. These efforts have sometimes resulted from a free exchange of experience among representatives to the central group. A central organization has often been successful in building morale and enthusiasm for continued program improvement efforts in individual building units as well as on a system-wide basis.

Role of the Central Office

Central office personnel, with responsibility for encouraging curriculum improvement and in-service education, sometimes operate through many channels and means other than that of the central council. Central office staff members may help establish pre-school work conferences, summer workshops or short-term work conferences of two or three days' duration in the course of the school year. They may provide leadership training programs for principals and committee chairmen. They may offer their services also as consultants to system-wide committees and building groups.

It is important to distinguish between central office staff activities which support sound curriculum improvement programs in individual buildings or classrooms, and those which are more general in their application. For example, through providing leadership for system-wide study groups, the central office may actually interfere with study group efforts on a building basis. Workshops can be organized for teams from individual building units or for individuals who participate without reference to their building problems. Similarly, leadership training activities for principals or committee members can be established to foster work on the principal's or committee's individual building problems.

In one western city, a leadership training and research program has been under way for a considerable period of time. The principal and curriculum coordinator from each of the buildings have worked as teams in the leadership program. These teams have concentrated their attention upon some problem of leadership in relation to an activity in their own buildings.

In an eastern city, released time of approximately one-half day is provided monthly for in-service activities. While there are occasional system-wide meetings, a substantial portion of each released-time period is devoted to individual building meetings and committee activities.

Continuous Analysis of Problems and Needs

Recognizing the possibilities for either a system-wide or an individual building focus in central office activities, there are two major functions of central office staff members in curriculum improvement. First of these is the fostering of a continuous analysis of curriculum problems and needs. In one of the United States territories the central curriculum staff requests the staff of each school unit to make an annual canvass of problems which are to be used by them as a basis for curriculum work during the ensuing year. As an outgrowth of central steering committee action, one city system in the United States requests similar information from building units. A state department of education makes available to schools a series of suggestions for surveying local communities to discover needs.

One state suggests techniques for assessing public opinion and reactions to educational programs and for working with lay groups in defining the task of the school. Another state makes suggestions for various types of studies of student needs, and

includes detailed proposals for making studies of dropouts and of graduates from high schools. In one county, consultant help from the central office is offered for a variety of purposes, one of which includes an analysis of needs. Increasingly, central offices are making available a variety of evaluation services to aid local groups in assessing the effectiveness of efforts to meet various needs which have been identified. This is in contrast to the centrally conceived, planned and directed testing programs which still characterize some American school systems.

Elements of a Continuous and Comprehensive Program

A second major function of central office staff members is the encouragement of a continuous and comprehensive program of curriculum improvement geared to student and community needs. Means of discharging this function are numerous. Yet, several basic considerations which underlie effective methods of discharging this function may be identified.

Providing favorable working conditions will help a staff in bringing about continuous curriculum improvement. Interpreting curriculum improvement as a regular responsibility with appropriate time provision within the regular school day, week and year appears essential. Enabling those concerned to meet together easily and in pleasant surroundings is an added help.

Providing conditions which will release the creative leadership of staff members is a basic consideration. Continuing efforts at program improvement appear in situations where morale is high. Probably freedom from tension and pressure, good communication among staff members and a feeling on the part of all that they have a contribution to make and that their ideas are respected are some of the essentials of high morale. Central office practices, then, which encourage suggestions and proposals from individual staff members and from faculty groups are desirable. It is important also, however, that suggestions be used or responded to, once they have been made.

Fostering a sense of group purpose within individual schools and within the system as a whole builds morale and encourages a continuous re-examination of activities. Much effort has been devoted to development of over-all statements of philosophy. In the main, these probably have not been effective in challenging the best efforts of faculty groups. Increasing use is being made of various approaches which start with the problems and concerns of staff members and then gradually relate these to the broader purposes of education.

Group purposes can often be established around some immediate or short-term objectives for a group. This may mean planning a good work conference, analyzing the situation relative to reading achievement and working out plans for dealing with it, or planning a series of meetings with students to secure their analysis of problems. The important consideration here is that of working with whatever may challenge a group, and then moving on from this to increasingly significant challenges. The important first step is to help a group taste the satisfactions of successful cooperative action.

Providing security for staff members in developing new practices may be a most significant function for central office staff personnel. If curriculum improvement efforts are to succeed in meeting new needs, some changes in practices are to be anticipated. Even if these modifications are made with care and after consultation with all concerned, any change in method and procedure represents a learning situation for the individuals most directly involved. This may well mean an additional time investment, a sense of lack of skill, some fumbling and uncertainty, and possibly criticism from students, parents or other staff members. Under such conditions, central office staff members are in a uniquely favorable position to give support to principals, teachers or others who may be involved.

Probably few staff members will seek continuously to modify and improve their ways of working unless they have from central office staff members support in the form of encouragement and assistance, not only in the starting of new ventures but also when new ventures do not work according to plan.

Arranging sound working relationships with other aspects of the school program is another vitally important function of the central office staff. The educational program is profoundly affected by policies and procedures relating to building planning and maintenance, pupil personnel activities, teacher personnel practices, business management, and furnishing of supplies and equipment. In some school systems definite routines are established for widespread participation by the professional personnel in formulating and reviewing policies relating to teacher selection, payment and promotion, pupil attendance and testing, building planning, and budgeting, ordering and distributing of supplies. In such instances the professional staff gains increased awareness of ways in which these personnel, building and business services can facilitate their work. Actually, participation in such policy formation may well become an active stimulus to program improvement.

In one eastern school a supervisor has been experimenting

with a policy of making one hundred dollars per year available to each teacher in a building to spend on materials and equipment for his own group. Actual expenditures are made after consultation with the supervisor and other teachers of the grade. This simple procedure has proved to be a powerful stimulus in encouraging teachers to acquaint themselves with new materials, to visit other schools for ideas and to review their own practices and procedures. Naturally, coordination with the business office was needed to make the arrangement possible.

Providing special resources which may be needed only occasionally in the individual school program also should be one of the functions of the central office staff. The history of American education reveals a constant struggle to increase the size of school units to the point where at least a minimum of special facilities and specialized staff can be made available to serve the particular student group involved. Recently more attention has been given to making available a great variety of resources to aid individual building groups or individual teachers in doing a more effective job. These resources may take many different forms such as (a) specialized personnel to help in analyzing the reading, personality or other problems of individual students; (b) specialized personnel to help faculty groups with such problems as improving techniques of group work, studying the community to identify needs, studying children to determine interests and concerns; (c) strengthening the science instruction; (d) bulletins and other materials which will save teachers' time by bringing needed information together in an easily accessible form; (e) equipment which may not be available in the particular building, such as projectors, wire recorders or radios. While it is helpful for a staff to know that a wide range of resources is available, central office personnel need actively to help staff members see how special resources can be used. Often, these may be the spark which will ignite the enthusiasm and interest of staff members in improving their own practices.

Coordinating the activities of instructional workers so that a unified curriculum is developed, and so that work can go forward effectively on an individual school basis, is an essential responsibility of central office personnel. This requires planning in the central office to facilitate a unified approach by the local faculty group. An active, successful primary supervisor, for example, sometimes can work independently in such a way that a unified approach to building problems under leadership of a principal becomes quite impossible. Where there is a large central office staff, it is sometimes possible to assign each school to

one central office staff member who serves as a coordinator of all central office services for the particular school. Possibly other plans of organization, such as development of central office teams to work with particular buildings, need to be tried. Central office personnel, working independently in terms of assigned functions or responsibility, in some instances have apparently hampered the development of sound curriculum improvement programs in individual buildings.

The foregoing suggestions concerning responsibilities of the central office staff in supporting sound curriculum improvement activities in individual school buildings and classrooms do not represent an exhaustive list. They are, however, illustrative of positive approaches. They should serve to make clear that constructive action on the part of central office personnel can facilitate and support sound local building activity. Conversely, they indicate that many central office practices can nullify or prevent local building activity. For example, when the central office curriculum staff has responsibility for rating staff members, it is unlikely that they can maintain with those whom they rate the type of relationship which will encourage local activity on a sound basis. Furthermore, centrally developed courses of study, depending on the type and manner of development, may make local building activity meaningless. A centrally directed testing program may even overpower and dwarf the efforts of local building groups. System-wide policies on promotion and retention may seriously limit building groups in their efforts to work effectively in many important areas.

Thus, every activity of the central office staff which in any way concerns the local building units or individual teachers, whether or not it is intended to facilitate curriculum improvement, should be examined for its possible influence on program development.

Organization To Facilitate Curriculum Improvement

Working on the assumption that both the individual school and the central office are important factors in curriculum improvement, we have given illustrations of ways in which each can supplement the other. Assuming that the functions assigned to each are soundly conceived, it seems appropriate now to turn to the question of how, within this conception of functions, schools can organize for effective program development activities. Again the focus will be upon the two coordinate centers: the individual school and the central office.

Organizing Within the Individual School Unit

As has been suggested, the individual building unit is here regarded as a primary organizing center for curriculum activity. The small unit of not over ten to fifteen teachers has a great advantage in this type of activity because face-to-face group work, which is so important to curriculum improvement, is conducted more easily in a group of this size. Thus, it is possible for a faculty to operate as a committee of the whole on all matters of general concern. Subcommittees or subgroups may be desirable and necessary for problems which need involve only a portion of the staff, such as the improvement of primary reading, or of improving playground activities for fifth and sixth grades. Even within a small staff, a steering or planning committee may be a useful means for establishing agendas and providing for orderly consideration of matters on which a staff may be working. Of course, subcommittees may be employed also, for giving preliminary consideration to problems which are primarily of a policy nature.

As a staff group exceeds ten to fifteen teachers, it becomes increasingly difficult to operate on a face-to-face basis. However, the exact size of the group which is organizing for curriculum improvement will vary somewhat, depending upon such conditions as the previous experiences which staff members have had with one another, the amount of time which a staff group has available for cooperative group work, and other circumstances. Major disadvantages associated with larger faculty groups reside not alone in the area of group dynamics but in the complexities of achieving full participation and of moving toward consensus. The fact that the size of a group limits the effectiveness of working on problems means that persons who do not participate in a particular action are thereby denied the opportunity for learning which might result from such sharing with others.

Many present-day curriculum development activities are based on two important assumptions: (a) School personnel, and teachers particularly, are the focal point; change and improvement in the curriculum will result only as there are changes in the values, understandings or skills of the school personnel. (b) Participation in groups is one of the most effective means for providing school personnel with opportunities to share in decisions which affect them, and to learn the needed modifica-

tions in their values, understandings and skills. It becomes important, therefore, for schools to find ways and means of organizing larger faculty groups so that the basic conditions necessary for sound curriculum improvement may be maintained.

Approaches to School Unit Organization

Several different approaches have achieved effective group work on the part of larger faculties. Many systems have attempted to set up schools within a school so that a faculty group of reasonable size, possibly eight to twelve in number, could have responsibility for a particular group of 250 to 300 students. In addition to facilitating better faculty working arrangements, this plan enables a staff group to come to know a particular student group sufficiently well to make effective guidance a possibility. A number of schools organize on the basis of grade groups so that all teachers concerned with a particular grade group or with certain sections of a grade group have an opportunity to meet and to work together on common problems of instruction and guidance.

It is common procedure to establish building committees on the basis of problems of special concern to a faculty. There may be several committees under way at one time, depending on the size of the school, the size of the committees and the concerns of the faculty. There is much to be said for having opportunities available for all staff members to participate continuously and voluntarily in some on-going curriculum improvement activity. Yet, the schedule should be such as to avoid overburdening any individual.

In many schools, even though there is a large faculty, ingenious procedures have been established for involving the total professional staff in major policy decisions. Provision is often made for starting all actions, whether for study groups or policy formation groups, with total staff approval. Then committees become responsible to the total faculty and there is added reason for keeping the total staff informed of subsequent subgroup or committee actions.

As committees carry on their work it is common to find them turning to the total faculty with questionnaires for further information, with an analysis of a problem on which they would like a reaction or with a presentation of data bearing upon a problem which the committee may be considering. All such

approaches help to re-emphasize the committees' responsibility and relationship to the total faculty. They help prevent a committee from developing activities or plans which may not be understood by the total group and may fail to get continuing support.

Involving Students in Curriculum Improvement

Schools increasingly are involving students in curriculum improvement activities. Obviously it is easiest to involve students within the individual classroom unit. This can be done from the nursery school through the university. Participation by students in study of themselves and of their own group and cooperation by students in planning for learning activities are the most common illustrations of their involvement in curriculum change. Some schools find it possible to engage students at a very early age in planning for special days and activities, for assemblies, for use of the library, for distribution of the mid-morning milk and for extra-class activities. It is of course less common to find active student participation in classroom aspects of the instructional program than in extra-class activities. Yet, through questionnaires relative to school and non-school activities, interest tests, autobiographical themes and similar devices, the opinions, reactions and beliefs of students are brought to bear upon the curriculum.

Organizing to involve students in over-all curriculum planning has as yet no clear pattern. In some schools, the student council is in the main stream of school activity and has the power to act as an agent for curriculum improvement. In other schools, students participate with staff members on a variety of committees, dealing with special problems such as the development of new areas which are close to the immediate interests and concerns of students. Participation of this type is probably most common at the secondary school level. In exploring more fully the possibilities for student participation, the individual building unit appears to be a point at which attention and effort might well be directed. Involvement of students on a system-wide basis is as yet relatively infrequent and represents an area in which there is relatively little experience.

Involving Citizens in Curriculum Improvement

Lay participation on the basis of building units is an important aspect of community involvement which is sometimes over-

looked in the concern for lay participation in policy formation on a system-wide basis. Yet, the inclusion of lay citizens in the individual classroom and building activities has great potentialities. The quality of the educational program may well be improved through association with lay citizens, and lay citizens may acquire understanding and a sense of pride and of ownership relative to the school's activities. It is sometimes assumed that in the individual building there is no organization problem with respect to involvement of lay groups. Still, it is clear that many schools do not fully exploit the possibilities for lay participation at this level, either because they fail to organize properly for it or because they lack recognition of its importance.

Lay participation in the activities of individual classrooms needs to be guided very largely by the teacher. There is almost no aspect of the curriculum in which parents and other lay citizens cannot contribute effectively. From storytelling in the primary grades to expert consultant help on aspects of sciences, literature and the arts, schools increasingly are making use of special knowledge or hobby interests and enthusiasms of lay citizens. Help by parents in supervising students on trips and excursions has long been common. Participation of parents in preparations for trips or in the subsequent follow-up activities is much less common. While there are isolated examples of teachers who have encouraged an extensive program in this area, there seem to be few illustrations of schools in which every teacher is making full use of lay resources. The few instances which have been found suggest that much can be done if a whole faculty, or some group within a faculty, will give careful attention to the ways in which teachers can involve lay citizens. It appears quite clear that such efforts help to clarify teachers' concepts as to ways of working with lay citizens. Also, they may encourage teachers to try new forms of cooperation and to learn how to work more effectively with citizens of the community. When total faculty groups work with lay citizens on an over-all program of curriculum study, much may be accomplished by way of establishing a climate favorable to individual teacher action in cooperating with lay citizens.

Participation of lay citizens has been developed more fully at the building level than at the classroom level. It is quite common to find lay citizens contributing to the development of some particular phase of the curriculum such as education for family living, for health and physical fitness or for some other

area in which a shortage exists. An increasing number of schools are involving lay committees, sometimes with one or more subgroups, in a study of various aspects of the school program. Some provision for study of what is and what might be often culminates in recommendations for future action. In introducing new areas which are likely to be controversial, it is not uncommon for schools to have parents and other lay citizens view films or examine other materials which are for use in the new program. Organization for this type of lay participation at the building level has tended to be rather nebulous. However, this situation may merely reflect the lack of experience and study in this phase of curriculum organization.

Providing Leadership in Individual Building Units

Organization for program improvement within the individual building unit, as has already been indicated, requires leadership time for encouragement, direction and coordination. Professional literature usually places responsibility for this leadership on the building principal. Yet, in practice, principals frequently are not trained to give this leadership or are so burdened with administrative duties that they do not have time to give attention to this major aspect of the school program. Two organizational developments are emerging which seem to give promise of help in this area. First, some systems are providing an individual staff member in building units with responsibility for program development. This person may have the title of vice-principal in charge of instruction, curriculum coordinator, director of instruction and guidance, or some similar designation. The second approach appears to be one of assigning central office staff to one or more building units, rather than of having them work generally throughout a school system. This plan recognizes the individual school building as an important focal point for curriculum improvement and assigns staff in such a way as to facilitate effective operation of this unit.

Most building units which are involved to any considerable extent in program improvement make some provision for coordination of activities within the building and for coordination between the building and system-wide aspects of the program.

Some faculties make use of a curriculum planning or steering committee, sometimes called a committee on instruction or a committee on instruction and guidance, which coordinates the in-service and curriculum improvement activities within a build-

ing. One or more members of this committee may be the liaison agents with a system-wide curriculum council. While these building committees on curriculum are constituted in various ways, they appear to be most effective when they are kept small and when they include representatives of various elements within a building such as grade or subject groups. Also, there appears to be real advantage in having such a building committee selected by the faculty after careful consideration of the members' responsibilities. There seems also to be value in providing limited-term membership on such a committee, with some change each year. This permits extension of committee experience to a larger segment of the staff and encourages introduction of new ideas, without disrupting the committee's continuity of action.

It is not uncommon to find these over-all building committees on instruction taking responsibility for relaying committee findings and procedural suggestions to system-wide committees, and in turn guiding local building study and work in harmony with system-wide action proposals. Such a committee also may be the channel for making known and arranging for the use of central office personnel and resource materials.

Organizing on a System-Wide Basis

In carrying out the important functions assigned in earlier sections of this chapter to the central office of a school system, organization is an important consideration. Suggestions have already been made regarding the importance of focusing attention on the individual building unit through organizational procedures such as placing resources as close to the point of use as possible. This might mean assigning central office staff to specific buildings, organizing the central office staff in working teams on the basis of help needed by a particular building group, and placing various resource materials in buildings or even in individual classrooms, when such procedures seem justified on the basis of extent of profitable use.

There are two reasons for a coordinated plan of curriculum improvement in a school system. First, there appear to be many advantages in working across school lines and levels. If there is satisfactory communication among the various units, much desirable interchange of promising practices may result. Further, adjustment problems always arise when students move from one unit to another. While there are problems of articula-

tion between successive years, these become most pronounced when there is a shift in buildings or organization as from elementary to junior high school, or junior high school to senior high school. Actually, coordination on a system-wide basis in some instances has helped to protect the initiative of the individual school. At times it also has helped to encourage small-scale experimentation and the use throughout a school system of results of such experimentation.

Second, there is often a need for presenting to citizens a unified viewpoint regarding school practices. Depending upon the extent to which a community has come to value uniformity and fixed standards and methods of operation, there will undoubtedly be a necessity for interpreting differences among schools and the reasons for such variations. Educators have sometimes defended uniformity from school to school when it was not justified on sound educational bases, and when it was contrary to the best interests of different community groups within a system. Also, they have sometimes helped the public build a blind respect for uniformity rather than interpreted to the public the importance of differences among schools. Schools of a type or level within a particular system certainly should have the same general social responsibility and should operate on the same basic principles. But there remains ample reason for differences in the specific methods, content and materials of instruction from one building to another.

Acknowledging the validity of some plan of over-all organization for program improvement within a school system, we may examine two supplementary agencies for carrying out the various central office functions—central curriculum committees, and central curriculum staff.

Central Curriculum Committees

Many city, county and state school systems with active programs of school improvement have a central committee, often referred to as a coordinating or steering committee or a curriculum council. Such a committee or council usually aids in the development of policies and plans and may make an important contribution to the coordination of activities within the system. In contrast to professional groups which may be selected for specific tasks of known duration, such a committee or council is frequently a standing one. Experience has revealed, however, the value in having a definite length of term

for members with provision for continuity in the activities of the group.

Membership on such a committee usually reflects the kind of curriculum improvement policies prevalent within the system. If curriculum efforts are primarily on a subject or grade level basis, the central committee may have representatives from these areas or levels. If curriculum efforts center upon work in individual buildings, as has been proposed in this chapter, representatives to a central committee may well be chosen on a building basis. Many school systems find it appropriate, however, to have representation also from the teachers, administrators, guidance personnel and other specialized workers who may be attached to building unit staffs. Whatever the basis of membership, the need for representation is usually implied. This makes it important that all concerned be willing to accept the basis of representation as valid. The idea of representation implies also that such groups have a continuing responsibility to keep themselves informed as to the needs and opinions of those whom they represent. A further consideration, in the case of all committees, in the selecting of members is the degree of interest of the individual concerned. Without a high level of individual interest, committees cannot fulfill their functions.

A few systems provide also for lay membership on the central curriculum committee, while other systems establish separate central lay advisory councils. While recognizing the importance of lay participation on as complete a basis as possible, much can be said in favor of having a separate lay committee. Many concerns of a central curriculum committee are not of primary interest to lay citizens. In view of this, there would appear to be value in having lay citizens organized separately, so that they may have time to give attention to the many problems and policies of major concern to them. There is no apparent reason, however, why a central committee of professional personnel cannot work jointly with a central committee of lay citizens whenever such action appears desirable.

CLEARLY DEFINED PURPOSE ESSENTIAL

Whether or not a central curriculum committee should be selected as an initial step in an effort to organize for curriculum program improvement is debatable. Belief is often expressed that not until the demands of other committees or building activities make the need apparent should a central

committee be started. At present there are no adequate guides to a solution for this problem. Experience does suggest that whenever central committees are established, they should have clearly defined purposes. A central committee can have a function in initiating a program. The difficulties of achieving full understanding of a new activity on the part of those to be represented, however, indicate that there may be value in having a temporary committee charged solely with responsibility for considering plans of organization and of initiation and for defining policies to govern a continuing program.

In addition to a central curriculum committee with responsibility for plans, policies and coordination, there may well be other central committees organized for specific purposes. Building representatives may request that special attention be directed toward re-definition of aims and objectives. In such a case it might be quite appropriate to have a special committee take the initiative on this problem. Similarly, policies of textbook selection might be up for review. This, too, might create a need for an additional committee. Unless there is special reason for representation of various interests or groups, as in the example of the textbook issue just cited, the important considerations in determining selection for committee membership should be the interest of the members and the special competencies needed by the committee.

Regardless of the type of committee, its members need time for work. They need to keep in constant communication with all who may be influenced in any major way by their activity. They need also to make clear their achievements to their own members and to all those interested in their activities. If these three conditions can be maintained, committee activities are likely to contribute to on-going programs of improvement.

Central Curriculum Staff

Turning to the second major factor in organization on a system-wide basis—the central curriculum staff—attention will be directed to some major staff arrangements and relationships for which organization should provide. Central staffs concerned with program improvement vary considerably from system to system with respect to the designation of members' positions, the nature of responsibilities and the plan of organization. This is probably because central staff groups have been developed and organized at different periods, both historically and in terms of

differing concepts of the curriculum. Points of view relative to the curriculum and means for its improvement which are presented earlier in this chapter, and throughout this volume, imply a need for marked change in the organization of central curriculum staff groups, in contrast to the organization generally in use twenty-five years ago. Thus, schools operating in accord with the point of view of this volume differ in many respects from those organizations which have remained static. Without detailing all the variations now in use, principal features of central staff organizations which appear sound in terms of present knowledge will be presented.

UNIFIED PROGRAM LEADERSHIP

One of the most encouraging recent developments, especially in larger centers, has been the designation of a single individual with authority and responsibility for educational program leadership on all levels included within the particular system. Often this person has the designation of assistant superintendent. This development is in accord with the general tendency to divide administrative responsibility on a functional basis. Provision of a single head for the educational program, as is now the case in many cities, counties and states, seems to be conducive to development of a unified and continuous program through all levels of a school system.

The fact that curriculum staff groups originally developed in connection with research, which for many years was regarded as the primary means of curriculum improvement, is probably one reason why the central office curriculum personnel have tended to be organized in a staff relationship. This does not appear to be an adequate arrangement. Along with the tendency to designate a single head for educational program activities has come the practice of giving this individual authority for curriculum work. This arrangement appears essential if central office personnel are to work on a broad basis throughout a system in relation to individual building units as has already been proposed.

UNIFIED ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY

A second characteristic of more recent organizations of the central staff is the unification of all curriculum, supervisory and special service staff under the single administrative officer responsible for the educational program. Because general and

special supervisors have been added to central staffs as the concept of the curriculum has emerged and enlarged, there frequently has been little coordination of their efforts. Some systems have a director of curriculum or a curriculum bureau administratively separate from the supervisors. Each of these in turn may be independent. This development resulted from an entirely different concept of the curriculum from that which is in operation today. The tendency toward coordination of all personnel concerned with instruction under unified leadership is in accord with current concepts of the curriculum and of appropriate methods for curriculum change.

UNIFIED CENTRAL POLICY

Curriculum work is now conceived of as being concerned with improving experiences of learners. Supervision likewise is increasingly thought of as work with the professional personnel in respect to any and all activities which improve the experiences of learners. Thus it is only natural that both curriculum workers and supervisors should be organized as a single unified group in order that matters of central policy as well as the impact of their efforts on the individual building and the individual teacher may be coordinated and give mutual support. This focus on the experiences of learners makes it natural that the selection of textbooks and the provision of audio-visual aids and library services, as well as testing and specialized help with evaluation problems, should be under the same leadership as are other aspects of the instructional program. Further, instructional research should be directly related to the function it is intended to serve and under the same administrative head.

FUNCTIONAL APPROACH

The tendency toward unity in organization of the supervisory, curriculum, materials, evaluation and instructional research staff members has reached beyond the area of instruction. A functional approach to the problem of organization has resulted in bringing the total educational program under a single administration in many school systems. Thus pupil personnel services, such as guidance, are seen to be so closely related to the curriculum, and both are so dependent upon each other for their success, that organizational provision should be made for unity in the administration of these aspects of the program in the central office as well as in the individual buildings.

Organization as One Aspect of Curriculum Improvement

The problem of organization for program improvement has been presented as an outgrowth of a particular concept of the curriculum and of the way in which it is changed and improved. Organization for program improvement has thus been viewed as one of the facilitating factors in discharging various functions which individual schools and central offices should perform in the course of curriculum development. While some arguments for particular ways of organizing have been presented, it is of course important to recognize that organizing is a continuous process which must take into consideration the people involved and their previous experience and capabilities. What may be theoretically a desirable organization may not be best in view of existing personnel. In some cases, changes in organization may well be delayed until changes in personnel make possible the introduction of the soundest plans for organizing.

The final test of any organization for program improvement is the contribution it makes to improving the quality of learning. This test is a difficult one to apply. There are less adequate, but nevertheless important, tests which can be applied more easily. The contribution which organizational patterns make to good human relations and the contribution which they make to maintenance of sound conditions for curriculum improvement are somewhat easier to observe and are valuable criteria.



Problems of importance in organizing for school improvement have been discussed in this chapter. The roles of the individual school unit and of the central office staff in curriculum improvement have been emphasized. The following guiding principles have been developed:

1. Successful organization for school improvement can be accomplished only through a continuous process of facilitating the educational program.
2. Organizing for school improvement is a process of systematizing and arranging for the effective use of persons and of other resources in the attainment of educational objectives.

3. Organization should facilitate improved practice on the part of individuals involved. It is therefore desirable to organize for school improvement in terms of the needs of specific groups of people including pupils, professional staff, parents and others.

4. Organization should be flexible and adapted to the conditions and educational purposes it is intended to serve.

5. Organization should take into account the backgrounds, experiences and relationships of professional personnel, the existing organization, present problems and needs of the school system, and community readiness for curriculum improvement.

6. Both the individual school and the central office of a school system are important factors in curriculum improvement.

7. Decentralization is desirable in curriculum programs. A high degree of authority and responsibility for curriculum improvement should reside in the individual school unit.

8. As individual building units become the main organizing centers for curriculum improvement, adequate channels of communication must be established with other units and with the central office staff.

9. When individual school units retain a large measure of autonomy and independence in curriculum improvement, need develops for over-all coordination, cooperative planning and policy making through system-wide organization.

10. Organization should provide opportunities for all school units to share in policy making, curriculum planning, and coordination of educational resources.

11. Organization for school improvement should be continuously evaluated to discover its influence on human relations and the extent to which it facilitates the basic conditions favorable to program development.

12. The ultimate test of organization for school improvement is the extent to which learners develop improved behaviors.

13. Two major functions of central office staff members are:

a. To encourage and to help with continuous evaluation and analysis of curriculum problems and needs.

b. To encourage a continuous and comprehensive program of curriculum improvement geared to meet general and specific pupil and community needs.

14. In carrying out these functions the central office staff should organize to:

a. Provide favorable working conditions to help individual school faculties in bringing about continuous curriculum improvement.

b. Provide conditions and services that release and make available creative leadership of individual teachers and school administrators.

c. Establish central office policies and practices which encourage school faculties and individuals to propose, initiate and carry out promising curriculum improvement programs and experiments.

d. Foster a sense of group purpose within individual schools and within the system as a whole to build morale and to give direction to school improvement.

e. Give encouragement and provide security for staff members in developing newer practices.

f. Arrange sound working relationships with other aspects of the school program such as building planning and maintenance, pupil personnel activities, teacher personnel services and business management.

g. Provide special resources needed in individual school improvement programs such as specialized services, helpful bulletins and needed equipment.

h. Coordinate the activities of central office personnel so that a unified and balanced curriculum is developed, and so that work can go forward effectively on an individual school basis.

CHAPTER V

Developing Leadership

EFFECTIVE leadership in curriculum improvement in our schools must be cooperative and democratic in nature. Such leadership means that relations among all persons concerned with the school program shall be of a kind consistent with democratic living and practice. Democratic leadership involves giving every member of a group encouragement and support. It means giving him an opportunity to develop as a group member, as a professional person.

In a cooperative endeavor, the function of leadership belongs to all who are concerned with the outcome of the enterprise. Leadership need not always go with a position of status, nor does it need to be considered a prerogative of a person with long tenure in a particular job. Every person has potential leadership strength. Leadership of this type may be thought of as the possessing of a needed ability, or as a capacity to express ideas which bring new insight, or as a knack of helping others to help themselves.

An individual exemplifies democratic leadership when he uses his own abilities and aptitudes to encourage those with whom he works to use their abilities, interests and aptitudes in accomplishment of common objectives. Such a leader helps his co-workers to identify leadership opportunities and to use these opportunities to accomplish results. He helps each individual discover his talents and resources and assists him in using these to improve learning opportunities for children, youth or adults.

The leadership which has proved most effective in democratic schools is that which can be developed through cooperative group action. Responsibilities in such a cooperative setting can be shared and authority decentralized. In this setting, too, leadership will depend less upon an individual's position and more upon his personal and professional qualifications. Every person thus becomes a potential leader depending upon the

situation in which he finds himself and upon the ability he possesses.

Democratic leadership, then, has a dual role. (a) It helps individuals within the group to grow toward self-knowledge, toward more effective guidance of action by the intelligent evaluation of results of action. (b) It encourages an atmosphere of sharing. Individuals in such an atmosphere learn to plan and work together for the advancement of the group as a whole and for solution of common problems. How these goals may be achieved will be explored in this chapter under headings which deal with developing the leadership potential of pupils, teachers, administrators, supervisors and lay citizens.

How Pupil Leadership Is Developed

As pupils begin to participate in the school improvement program, many opportunities for development of their leadership become evident. Such opportunities will be found in almost every aspect of the school program. The physical condition of buildings and grounds has challenged the energies and ingenuity of pupils in many schools. Classrooms have been made more attractive through their efforts. Cafeterias have been completely redecorated. Auxiliary space has been brightened and utilized. Paintings by pupils have frequently been used to decorate hallways, offices and assembly rooms.

In other situations, school management and organization have been the focus of pupil attention. School councils on elementary and secondary levels have frequently provided pupils with firsthand opportunities for leadership training.

Other schools have benefited materially through curriculum modifications suggested by students. In these instances, the strong concerns of children and youth have influenced classroom and school activities. Often these activities have resulted in the involvement of children and youth in the analysis of problems, the gathering of data, the formulation of action plans and the follow-through. Such action in many situations has improved conditions and brought benefits both to those immediately concerned with the program and to others in the school and the community.

Community improvement through school activities is becoming more widely recognized as an important aspect of curriculum work. The influence of what pupils accomplish as a part of the regular school program is making life better in many commu-

nities. Wherever and whenever this occurs, education may be said to be operating at its best.

Leadership in Improving School Conditions

Many examples might be cited of situations in which students are improving their physical surroundings as part of their curricular experiences. As one instance, for a number of years pupils of the Parkside Elementary School in Montgomery County, Maryland, have worked to beautify their school grounds. Their project has resulted in the effective planting of shrubs, flowers and trees. Each year additional improvements have added beauty to the school grounds.

Student Insurance Company Solves Dish Breakage

Pupils of the Skokie Junior High School in Winnetka, Illinois, have developed a different type of project.¹ A few years ago the Skokie School Council undertook to find the best way to reduce the excessive breakage of dishes in the lunchrooms. Council representatives referred this school problem to the various classes for discussion and recommendations.

One arithmetic class which had been studying insurance had several weeks previously conceived the idea that it would be fun to organize and operate an insurance company. One of the parents who is an insurance broker had been invited to advise the students. She told them about different kinds of insurance but gave no concrete suggestion as to what they might insure within the school.

The students, nevertheless, had not given up their idea. When the cafeteria problem came up, this group pounced upon it immediately. Why not organize an insurance company which would insure its members against financial loss from accidental breakage of dishes?

The next question was whether the students should organize to operate for profit or on a cooperative basis. After further study and discussion, they chose the cooperative plan and drew up a constitution. Within a short time the Skokie School Mutual Insurance Company was chartered by the school council, which is the central self-governing body composed of representatives from social studies classes, service committees and business enterprises.

¹ In *The Nation's Schools*, March, 1948.

According to the insurance company's constitution, its purposes are (a) to give a feeling of assurance to its members and (b) to insure members against breakage of dishes, bottles and so on in the lunchrooms, cafeteria and adjoining halls (excluding the kitchen and dish-washing room) during regular school hours.

Any citizen of the school, child or adult, may purchase a policy and share in the company management. At present, about three-fourths of the school community are participating members. A board of directors, elected for half-year terms by the members, meets weekly, takes organizational responsibilities, acts on claims and conducts the company's affairs between general membership meetings, which must be held at least twice each year. The board elects its own chairman but is directly responsible to the members.

Premium rates are determined by majority vote of the policy holders. Several years ago the rates were fairly high because there was a high accident rate; one year a special assessment was necessary. However, educational campaigns on how to handle a tray of dishes, on the wisdom of walking slowly while carrying a tray, and on good table manners, conducted by the company's education committee, have reduced the number of accidents. At present the insurance company is operating on a financially sound basis with policies costing nine, ten and eleven cents for one, two or three years, respectively. Last year each member received a five-cent refund. There may not be any refund this year because costs of dishes have gone up while premium rates have not been raised.

One board member is elected to act as chief adjuster, but all board members are adjusters. They alternate at different lunch periods so that there is always one adjuster, and usually several, on duty. A list of the adjusters is posted in the lunchrooms so that if one does not appear at the scene of an accident, a claimant may know where to find one.

Usually an adjuster appears within a moment after a crash is heard. He is trained to be alert, pleasant and helpful. After he has assisted in picking up the broken dishes, he notes on a specially printed form, called an "adjuster's report," the name of the person who had the accident, whether he is a member of the company, the date, the kind of dish or dishes broken and the amount of damage.

If the claimant declares that he is a member of the company, he is given a claim form to fill out and place in the company's

mailbox. On this form he writes his name, the date, the item broken, a description of how the accident occurred and, if possible, the names of two witnesses. If the person who had the accident says he is not a policy holder, the adjuster collects for the damage and pays the money to the cafeteria manager. This is done as a service to the school.

At each board meeting the claims are read and checked. Once in a while it is discovered that a false claim has been made, possibly by a person whose intentions to purchase a policy were so good that he thought he had completed the transaction. An investigator who has collected the claim forms and made an initial investigation reports his opinion as to whether the company is liable in each case.

If the board accepts the investigator's report, and there is no question raised as to liability, the chairman directs the treasurer to pay the claim. The treasurer then goes to the school bank and draws out the amount necessary to pay the cafeteria manager who, when she receives the money, signs a receipt on the original adjustment form which is then returned to the files.

Frequently, claims are not so simple as this in their settlement. Often a question exists as to whether the breakage is due to an accident or to inexcusable carelessness. If the latter seems to be the case, the claimant and his witnesses are called in to the board meeting and questioned. The board makes a final decision as to whether the company is liable. In some cases, especially when the evidence is not clear, a decision for "partial payment" is rendered. The company and the claimant then divide the payment of the liability.

Now that the initial experiment in owning and operating an accident insurance company has proved successful, interested students are exploring the possibilities of extending the company's services to cover other school risks and of selling other kinds of insurance.

New Look for an Old School

Projects involving the school environment are not confined to elementary or secondary schools. One college class in the School of Education at the University of Indiana planned and carried out a unique project. The class "adopted" a small rural school several miles from the college campus. The students planned how the school building could be repaired and redecorated to

make it a modern school setting for children. Furniture was restored and resurfaced. The walls of the classrooms were cleaned and redecorated. Floors, too, were repaired and resurfaced.

When the class finished its project, it found that there was twofold value in the activity. Members of the class had gained many valuable learning experiences in the maintenance and beautification of a school plant. Secondly, the children in the small school now had the benefit of living in a much more attractive classroom and school building.

Physical conditions within the school and its immediate community offer many realistic educational experiences for children. Teachers are capitalizing upon these conditions and pupils are gaining through them many worth-while learning and leadership experiences.

Leadership in School Organization

Organization within the school offers many opportunities for developing student leadership. Student government, management of clubs, pupil responsibilities for the daily living activities in and around the school—all offer experiences which may develop leadership.

When Students Make Their School a Community

Skokie Junior High School of Winnetka might again be cited as having evolved an example of student self-government which is illustrative of leadership in school organization. For more than ten years, this school has served as a laboratory for development of political and economic self-government among its students.

Like the larger community of which it is a part, the school includes institutions developed to provide the goods and services needed by its citizens. In all these institutions, the form and spirit of self-government operate. In all of them the children meet the same sort of problems of government and of business which their parents and other adults are meeting each day in the country and world at large.

Student-operated "institutions" include profit and non-profit corporations, a bank, an insurance company, a consumer's co-op, a conservation authority, and even a labor union—that of the Skokie Dishwashers.

The eleven- to fourteen-year-old boys and girls also pay a 12 percent income tax on allowances from their parents after deductions for savings, lunches, personal expenses and contributions to Sunday school. The income tax varies from two to thirty cents for the school year.

Private corporations, all of them chartered by the school council, are taxed on their profits, usually from two to fifteen dollars for the school year. Voting shares in the companies can be purchased for thirty-five cents each.

After payment of rent and taxes to the student government, corporations return a reasonable interest to investors of capital. The remainder of the profits, in most cases, go to those who have contributed labor. Individuals may at any time withdraw from the bank their invested capital.

The school council is patterned after Winnetka's non-partisan caucus type of government. It is made up of a president and representatives who are drawn from the social studies classes, corporations and various school committees.

The Skokie Dishwashers Union has a membership of about twenty-five. Each member pays about four cents a week into the union treasury. This treasury bears half the cost of any dish breakage. The present contract with the cafeteria management provides that the boys be paid in lunches, valued at fifty cents each. There has never been a strike threat, but in event of trouble, the contract provides for arbitration.

Another enterprise, the Skokie Conservation Authority, is owned by the student government and managed by a council-appointed board of directors. The authority has developed a thriving nursery business, raising evergreen trees and shrubs for sale to Winnetka citizens.

The Skokie Co-op makes school supplies of good quality available at fair market prices. Earnings are returned to members in proportion to the amount of their purchases.

This Skokie Junior High School program demonstrates how to develop better social understanding, social inventiveness, co-operation and responsibility.

Government by the Governed

Student organization is promoted on a state-wide scale in Virginia. Individual schools have student organizations in which all pupils participate. In each local situation, pupils elect officers for the entire school and each classroom also chooses

officers for the room. A number of all-school committees have been appointed. These student committees have responsibilities which are directly related to the improvement of school conditions.

A student health committee performs a variety of services in many Virginia schools. In one locality, for example, members help with school clinics. They look after the cleanliness of building and grounds. The committee checks the entire building and grounds each week for conditions which might be detrimental to the health of pupils.

Individual schools in Virginia generally have other committees such as those for safety, school activities and student welfare. Each week these student committees report to the student council, which is the coordinating agency for all committee activity.

Leadership in Curriculum Planning

Children of the Petersburg, West Virginia, elementary school recently became concerned about health conditions in their community. They initiated a project to improve these conditions. The principal was invited into a class one afternoon to discuss the possibility of organizing a health activity for the school which might result in a better diet and a more healthful community for children.

During this first meeting, the children made many suggestions. They felt that much could be done in the community to prevent colds; to get rid of flies and other insects; to exterminate disease-carrying rodents; and to clear away refuse dumps. Discussing these ideas, the children became more enthusiastic than ever about the possibilities of their health project. Class interest in the project was high and continued so throughout the term. The principal met with the group a second time and their planning continued.

Before the week was over, many things which could be done were listed. Some of the problems were: how to arrange for better garbage disposal; how to establish a better city dump; and what are practical ways for keeping the town clean. The pupils also listed things they needed to know more about: which pests bother people in the community; how the community's food is handled; what livestock is kept within city limits; how contagious diseases are controlled; what recreation opportunities are available and are needed for children and adults; and

what provisions are made for rest rooms for people who come into town.

Now the children were ready for action. They realized that they had before them a big undertaking. One pupil suggested that the entire school be invited to help with the study and work. The principal asked that all teachers be included in a discussion of this class's project. Such a meeting followed, and there was general agreement that this class's suggestion offered an excellent opportunity for all classes to cooperate for the benefit of both school and community.

From then on things began to happen in Petersburg. Parents became involved in the project. All school classes developed action plans which were carried out in cooperation with the entire community. The curriculum for this school was significantly modified by pupils under the guidance of a skilled school staff.

Leadership in Community Improvement

Good school programs frequently help to make life better in communities. Children's school activities often grow out of local community needs or conditions. Learning of this type goes far beyond simply knowing about the community. Such learning, too, eventually results in the improved living of young people and adults in the community.

Students in the Holtville High School at Deatsville, Alabama, have been working since 1938 toward improving their community. Throughout more than twelve years, students have made many contributions to the betterment of community living. They have helped with surveys such as the one which led to development of the school's quick-freeze plant. They had found that about one-fourth of all meat processed in the county spoiled because of lack of refrigeration. Pupils planned, and saw established, as a partial answer to this problem, a modern refrigeration plant for preservation of the meat produced on their own farms. Now this modern plant is operated jointly by pupils and by a hired manager. In one year this community plant preserved more than 50,000 pounds of meat belonging to pupils and their parents.

A study by one class led to the conclusion that the school ought to develop a community chick hatchery. Such a hatchery was completed and for a number of years visitors have been able to observe its beneficial results on many of the near-by farms.

Holtville students do a great deal of peach tree spraying. They also help preserve vegetables, fruits and meats in the school's own cannery. They raise seedling plants, which then are taken to students' homes to be transplanted in gardens.

The Holtville program has changed over the years, but pupils play a significant role in it and the things they do directly enrich community living.

How Teacher Leadership Is Developed

Few of the early curriculum development programs emphasized the need for teacher participation. Courses of study and curriculum bulletins were produced by so-called experts. The teacher's role was simply to read and apply the content of these bulletins. Also, a common practice was to use a course or series of lectures for "teaching" teachers new points of view and procedures. In time the question was raised whether passive participation, such as the reading of bulletins or listening to authorities, adequately and effectively develops teacher interest and teacher leadership.

More recently, teachers in some instances have been involved in the writing of curriculum bulletins, guides and courses of study. Generally, however, the number of teachers participating in such plans has been relatively small, and frequently the persons selected for such programs are those who already have demonstrated leadership abilities.

During the past decade the importance of teacher participation and teacher leadership has become much more widely understood and accepted. These concepts hold that curriculum improvement takes place only as teachers become vitally and actively concerned about providing improved experiences for learners. Teachers become leaders in the sense of being professional persons who are both eager and competent to encourage and guide the developmental activities of other people.

This section gives consideration to some of the conditions and procedures which facilitate the development of these leadership competencies by teachers.

Meetings for Specific Purposes

Although at times the type of meeting in which one speaker stimulates thinking and action may be effective, teacher leadership is usually given a much better opportunity to develop in

less formal situations. One such informal situation is the workshop.

The workshop idea is based on a realization of the necessity for working on problems or jobs which are recognized by teachers as being important. Increasingly workshops set up by school systems are organized so as to facilitate the accomplishment of specific jobs agreed upon in advance by representative planning committees and participants.

A recent development of this type is the organization of workshops for the teachers of a particular school system. Thus in June 1950, all teaching personnel of the Dade County, Florida, schools participated in a school system workshop. The teachers were paid for this work. Such a situation, in which attendance may not be voluntary, holds possibilities of passive participation, even of resistance. This possibility, however, was minimized in the Dade County Workshop by a program which gave emphasis to jobs to be done within the school system.

Curriculum planning committees had been at work throughout 1949-50 determining some of the jobs which should be accomplished in this workshop. Three major areas for attack by all participants in the five workshop centers were defined: (a) the meaning and implications of basic concepts (listed by a representative committee) from the fields of child development, educational philosophy, teaching and learning; (b) a curriculum framework for each level of the system in the light of these concepts; and (c) administrative problems such as allocation of personnel to schools, selection of supplies and lists of minimum equipment and supplies. A series of group meetings on many specific problems also was organized in each workshop center. Representative committees elicited proposals and suggestions from all groups in the workshop.

Widespread use of pre-school conferences facilitated the organization of meetings in which teachers had important jobs to do. Teachers at pre-school conferences played such vital roles as the following:

Acquainting new teachers with the personnel and facilities of the school system.

Presenting to faculty groups plans which have been worked out in committees for books and materials, class organization, testing and other activities.

Guiding groups in tours of community facilities.

Organizing plans for assigning pupils to groups, for distributing new books and materials, and for scheduling special teachers and consultants.

Electing building representatives to important committees within the school system.

Preparing directories of persons and places to help people get acquainted more easily.

Carrying on social activities.

Planning curriculum studies and committee activities for the coming year.

Installing new record systems.

Explaining the school program to new parents.

Discussing school-community programs with community representatives.

Teacher Councils Have Important Functions

A significant feature of recent types of organization for curriculum improvement is the coordinating committee or council. Some councils, such as that in Kalamazoo, Michigan, involve lay representation; and others, pupil representation. Such councils frequently serve primarily to give reactions to suggestions from the school administration or to make suggestions to the administration from the groups represented. Definitely organized for "springboard" purposes is the administrative advisory council. Some councils combine coordinating and legislative functions, and on occasion even exert executive functions.. An example of a council with professional membership only and with definite responsibility for achieving agreement on jobs to be done and then for carrying out these jobs is the Battle Creek, Michigan, Council on Instruction.²

The Battle Creek Council was organized in September 1947, to provide better liaison between the school units and the central committees and curriculum workers and also to promote curriculum activity in the individual buildings. Each building faculty (there were sixteen buildings at the time) elected one teacher representative to the council, and the principals and Division of Instruction staff also had one representative each. By action of the Committee on Committees (responsible in Battle Creek

² Caswell, Hollis L. and associates. "Improving Instruction in Battle Creek, 1945-49." *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia, 1950.

for organizing major committees, their assignments and personnel), the assistant superintendent who is also director of instruction has served each year as chairman of the council. The Council meets one half-day each month on school time. Chairmen of instructional committees who are not members and other teachers who have reports to present also attend these meetings.

Ordinarily, a report from the council is made at each building faculty meeting immediately following the council meeting. Reactions and proposals to be presented to the council are formulated in building meetings immediately preceding the council meeting. In 1949-50 copies of a mimeographed bulletin (the "Curriculum Bulletin") summarizing each meeting were sent to all faculty members. Thus not only was council membership important but also each faculty member's ideas were important to the council. Furthermore, most jobs to be undertaken in the instructional program were assigned by the council to subcommittees, the membership of which was selected by the council from the entire teaching staff.

An indication of the importance of the work of this teachers council is given by the following list of the major projects:

- Organization of several workshops—arts and crafts, elementary science, music, reading, and in 1949-50 a "year-round" workshop in several areas.

- Establishment of university extension courses in reading, audio-visual aids and other areas requested by the faculty.

- Introduction in elementary schools, first on an experimental basis and finally with full participation, of the conference method of reporting to parents.

- Revision of junior high reporting system.

- Preparation and installation of new cumulative records.

- Selection of books, supplies, materials, tests.

- Preparation of curriculum guides in social studies, arithmetic, reading, spelling, language.

- Organization of annual pre-school conference.

- Preparation of policies regarding instructional materials.

- Preparation of resource materials in social studies at various grade levels.

- Preparation of policies regarding the use of consultants.

- Planning programs for the induction of new teachers.

- Study of the use of teachers' planning period.

- Preparation of agreement with publishers regarding the study of new materials.

Another example of a council which promotes the direct exercise of leadership by teachers is the Coordinating Committee of the Winnetka, Illinois, Public Schools. This committee, consisting of elected teacher representatives from the four elementary schools and also of the four principals and certain other teacher members, carried on the following functions in 1949-50 with the superintendent as chairman (in accordance with the by-laws of the Winnetka Teachers Council):

- Established the school calendar, publishing monthly supplements.

- Planned all professional staff meetings.

- Developed policies for facilitating curriculum coordination.

- Developed policies for choosing teacher representatives to regional and national professional meetings.

- Recommended summer workshops and other opportunities for teachers' professional growth.

- Planned assignments and schedules of consultants and special teachers.

- Developed policies of admission and progress of pupils.

- Planned programs for inducting new teachers.

Building representatives on the Winnetka Coordinating Committee function as liaison persons to obtain and express opinions, suggestions and reactions of their respective faculties. Published minutes and building meetings are the principal methods of communication utilized.

Recognizing Teaching as a Specialized Service

Underlying many recent efforts to develop teacher leadership is the principle that teaching is a specialized service. Instruction involves preparation and competencies which are as specialized and specific as those required in administration, supervision or other fields of work in which status leadership exists. Various means have been used to promote and implement this interpretation of teaching as a specialized service.

In contrast to those salary schedules which include fixed differentials for non-teaching personnel such as principals, supervisors, consultants, guidance directors, librarians and coaches, schedules have been developed in a few systems in which differentials are based only on teaching experience, training and various measures of competency, rather than on the type of service performed. Difficult as such schedules are to develop and ad-

minister, full recognition of teaching as a specialized service requires such salary adjustments.

Other forms of recognition, however, are being used in modern school systems to promote and utilize leadership by teachers in their areas of competency. Sabbatical leaves give teachers opportunities to develop greater competency and also to give service in other locations. Recent developments in international teacher-exchange arrangements are affording many American teachers an opportunity to develop and demonstrate leadership abilities. Exchanges within the United States are being made also; for example, in 1950 the Pasadena, California, schools initiated a long-term plan of exchange arrangements with several outstanding school systems. Able classroom teachers are being widely sought for positions of leadership in summer schools, demonstration schools and workshops throughout the country. The handling of requests for such personnel is an excellent device for administrative promotion of teacher leadership.

In a growing number of school systems administrators are using requests for speakers, writers and consultants as opportunities for developing and recognizing the specialized abilities of teacher leaders. For example, series of radio broadcasts on specific programs of the schools in many systems present the teachers who work with these programs. Press releases also now often quote teachers' reports of their work rather than give only the administrator's version. Creative administrators divert requests for speeches, articles and consultative services to teachers who can handle such requests effectively. Recognition of this kind is not only appreciated by teachers but results very frequently in more effective speeches, articles and services than could be provided by persons lacking direct contact with the programs or problems involved.

Participation in Professional Meetings

Participation in state, regional and national meetings is another form of recognition which many school systems are making possible for their teachers. Progress in this regard is exemplified by the following comparison from one school system.

Until about five years ago, expenses in this system were paid by the schools for a limited number of out-of-town meetings for only the superintendent and a few other administrators. Members of the teaching staff contributed or raised funds to send a delegate to such national meetings as that of the Association for

Childhood Education International. In a more recent year, expenses have been paid by the school system for representatives to attend national meetings of the National Education Association; the American Association of School Administrators; the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; the Association for Childhood Education International; the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; the annual Columbia University Curriculum Conference; national conventions in the fields of music, art, physical education, industrial arts, social studies, English and mathematics; many state committees, conferences and workshops; and various summer conferences and workshops.

The number of persons whose expenses were paid in whole or in part for one or more such meetings increased from a very few to perhaps one hundred (or a third of the staff). The total expenditure for expenses, however, was less than one percent of the teachers' salary budget. Recognition of this sort tends to improve morale, to contribute to the development of leadership, and to give leaders in every type of service an opportunity to improve the professional contributions which they are capable of making.

Selecting the School Staff

If the concept that teaching is a specialized service is fully recognized within a school system, there must also be recognition that specialized abilities vary widely among individual teachers. If a maximum number of teachers are to have opportunities to use their abilities and to be recognized for their leadership competencies, new plans of selecting school staffs are needed. For example, analysis of need for staff in terms of so many teachers per grade or department is already inadequate for this purpose.

Beginnings of new designs are being made. In some situations teachers are selected and assigned with reference to the many needs which exist in the school organization for specific competencies other than general teaching ability. For example, in one system the assignment of teachers to elementary schools was a matter of extended conference involving the principal, the consultants in instruction and the assistant superintendent. Competencies of the continuing staff members were analyzed in such areas as music, art, audio-visual aids, testing, adult leadership, youth organizations, dramatics, and others. So far as

possible, deficiencies were met through the qualifications of new staff members assigned to the school.

Creative school administration will carry such analyses further so as to select teaching staffs upon principles such as these:

A qualified teacher for each self-contained classroom or departmental assignment.

One or more teachers with leadership abilities in each of the major areas of all-school needs, such as testing and counseling, creative expression, audio-visual aids, selection and distribution of materials and supplies, adult leadership, youth organization and others.

Opportunity for development and use of each teacher's particular leadership abilities.

Sharing Administrative Functions

Recent professional literature includes many statements of principles and examples of teacher participation in administrative functions of the school system. In some instances "democratic administration" is praised merely because more people participate in the making of policies and decisions. From a more specific standpoint, teacher participation in administration is good because in this way teachers are given opportunity to exert leadership and to develop competencies in leadership. Some administrative functions in which teachers increasingly are using opportunities to develop and exercise leadership are described in the following paragraphs.

The entire field of personnel administration is one in which teachers participate effectively. Classroom teachers are used as members of interview teams for selecting new teachers. In some situations teacher committees interview candidates for principalships and superintendencies. Enlightened administrators work with teacher committees in establishing assignment and transfer policies. Induction of new teachers is a problem in which experienced staff members exert particularly helpful and rewarding leadership.

In situations where salary credit is given for professional study and other experiences, teacher committees are effective in determining policies, establishing areas in which study is needed, and evaluating work for credit purposes. For example, the "Pre-Approval" Committee in Winnetka, Illinois, acts upon advance applications for salary credit to be awarded for study, work experience, travel and research. Such a committee, with

adequate teacher representation, frequently may be more sensitive to the possible values of various experiences than is the administrator. Also, any adequate scheme of teacher evaluation must be built at least in part upon teachers' own ideas of teaching competence and administered with respect to values held for themselves by teachers.

Teacher participation in problems of the physical plant and in fiscal matters also is becoming more general. Planning of new buildings, renovation of rooms and other facilities, and selection of supplies and equipment, are jobs in which teachers' experiences make for effective contributions. In the Dade County, Florida, schools, teacher committees worked throughout 1949-50 to develop approved supply and equipment lists. Teacher participation in the listing of needs for consideration in preparing budgets and in making budgetary allocations is essential although frequently neglected by administrators.

Perhaps the most effective contributions to administration are made by teachers in the area of public relations. The importance of the potential leadership of teachers through their interpretation of the school program to parents of the children they teach has long been recognized. A less obvious but increasingly common type of teacher participation is in the more formal media of public interpretation—press, radio, speeches. Public relations committees of teachers' associations have been active in many recent campaigns for school funds. Teacher members of campaign teams frequently make the most dramatic and effective presentations.

Choice of Teacher Representatives

A major problem in the development of teacher leadership is the designation of teacher representatives for various purposes—membership on committees, chairmanship, attendance at conferences and conventions, membership on representative councils. The method of choice itself can be a process for developing leadership.

The conventional method of administrative appointment has virtue in some situations in which teacher representatives are to be designated. Frequently administrators are asked to designate or recommend teachers for membership on state or national committees, for speaking or consultative engagements, for scholarships or exchanges. In such cases the teacher is desired primarily for his own merit and not as a representative of the

system. The administrator who is well acquainted with the competencies of individual staff members may make a better designation than would be accomplished by some committee or by faculty vote. In other words, the expert should be selected by the person or persons best qualified to appraise the expertness desired. The administrator may make effective use of such nominations to develop leadership; that is, his own efforts to learn and recognize competencies may very well serve as a motivating factor for teachers.

Choice of representatives by the group represented and of group leaders by the group concerned is an essential principle of democratic organization. This principle seems completely violated by patterns of committee organization in which representatives of building faculties or other groups are chosen by external authority. Similarly, designation of a chairman by the person appointing a committee overlooks the group's prerogative of choosing its own presiding officer. Thus, school coordinating committees should, and increasingly do, include elected representatives, teachers who have an obligation to the groups represented as well as to the committee. Also, representatives on state or national committees or programs whose primary qualification is that of representing the local group are properly elected rather than appointed.

The process of electing such representatives can be profitable if, as in many school systems, time is provided for systematic consideration of desired qualifications and candidates' competencies. Without such considerations, teachers' choices may be influenced by as inconsequential and irrelevant factors as sometimes operate in poorly guided pupil elections or in adult political campaigns. In one system two half-day faculty meetings are devoted to discussion and election of representatives to four major councils of the system. In another situation several building meetings, one general meeting, and balloting were utilized to choose a teacher representative to the 1950 national meeting of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Such processes provide opportunity for teacher leadership to be elicited and developed on constructive bases.

Fostering Creative Work

Underlying whatever specific opportunities for teacher leadership may exist must be the kind of human relations which foster creative activity by persons involved. Although such relations

cannot be blueprinted, the following conditions seem to prevail in school systems in which interpersonal relations are warmest and teacher leadership most effective.

All staff members are encouraged to make constructive criticisms of school policies without fear of reprisals.

Staff members who make mistakes, who are conscientious and need help, are not made victims of punitive personnel practices but rather are given free opportunity to rectify mistakes and to secure help.

Jobs are assigned on the basis of ability and interest, rather than upon seniority or lack of it or upon some equally mechanical and unrealistic basis.

Discrimination among teachers in the fixing of salaries and assignments is made along lines of agreed-upon policies rather than on the personal whims of administrators or on the political aspirations and obligations of board members or administrators.

Contributions of all staff members are recognized by colleagues and by the administration as fully as policies permit.

How Administrative and Supervisory Leadership Is Developed

Improvement of the school program is dependent in large measure upon the quality of administrative and supervisory leadership found in the local situation. With suitable leadership, programs can be developed which will meet the needs of children and youth, develop the competence necessary for democratic living, and make for the enrichment of community living. Of crucial importance to improvement of learning experiences in any community is the development of socially sensitive, well-informed and professionally competent administrative and supervisory leadership. This is a task of huge proportions, and one which invites the attention and consideration of all organizations, institutions and individuals charged with responsibility for improving education.

Fortunately, many individuals and groups are actively at work in this respect. Many state departments of education are doing splendid jobs in the development of leadership. Various colleges and universities are providing leadership and services. By persistent efforts, study councils and regional associations are cutting across state lines and becoming national in scope and influence. Such efforts are beginning to bring gratifying results.

Accomplishments in this area are of great value and interest to all those concerned with providing better learning opportunities for our young people.

New techniques for giving service are being developed and refined. More and more, status leaders are moving away from the concept that they are the chosen few. A gradual trend in school improvement is toward the concept which places the status leader in the position of coordinator and consultant. Supervisors in increasing numbers are changing radically their emphasis in this direction.

Role of State Departments of Education

For many years state departments of education have given considerable attention to curriculum improvement. Some of their programs increasingly emphasize a leadership role which involves teachers, principals, supervisors, administrators and in some instances parents and other lay citizens. Relationships with local schools are based upon the service concept of leadership. This approach results in consultative assistance, joint sponsorship of workshops, conferences and clinics and the development of guides and other resource materials. Such an approach usually affords many opportunities for leadership.

State departments are doing much of their work in cooperation with local schools, counties, institutions of higher learning, agencies and lay groups. Wide diversity may be seen in the kinds of services which they offer and the types of leadership which they exert in curriculum improvement.

The Florida Department of Education has done much to stimulate and develop supervisory leadership throughout the state. This has been only one aspect of the state's general curriculum plan. Valuable supervisory criteria have been developed in a comprehensive study of the state department's role in this program.³

The California State Department of Education has recently developed a teachers' guide for early childhood education. The method of preparation was that of working with groups of supervisors, principals and teachers throughout the state. In this

³ See *State Supervision in Florida*, by Samuel Henry Moorer, Vanderbilt University. Submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy in the Department of Education of the Graduate School, George Peabody College for Teachers, August 1949.

manner, large numbers of persons were involved. This publication does not attempt to provide a course of study under a new title. It provides, rather, a basic resource volume from which schools may draw ideas which can be adapted to local needs.

A comprehensive program of curriculum improvement at the secondary level was started in Illinois in 1947. This program is sponsored by the State Department of Public Instruction in cooperation with colleges and universities, the state Secondary Principals Association, and thirty-eight lay and professional groups throughout the state. There is broad support from lay as well as professional groups. This has been basic to the success of the program to date.

Teams of consultants from colleges and universities, the state department, and high schools are helping staffs in forty-two selected school systems in attempting to improve the curriculum through seventy-eight carefully planned projects. These projects are concerned with the modification of existing courses, with enrichment in broad fields, with development of common learnings and with projects which cut across subject areas. No project has been undertaken without formal approval by the local board of education.

Hundreds of school administrators and teachers have attended one or more workshops. About 6200 teachers and administrators from twenty-nine counties have attended the twenty-three county meetings held during the first three years of the program. The extent of general interest aroused may be judged from the fact that the nine cooperating schools chosen for across-the-board curriculum development were not selected until more than one hundred schools which applied for places in the study were personally visited by members of the state director's staff.

This program in Illinois has an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars from the state legislature for the current two-year period. Funds are used exclusively for publication costs and over-all direction. Workshops and conferences are financed by local schools and by the institutions of higher learning in the state. This is one example of what can be done when the leadership of a state department is coordinated with that of many other existing groups within a state.

The State Department of Education in Washington has many significant projects under way. In this state a Curriculum Commission serves in an advisory capacity to the State Super-

intendent of Public Instruction on matters pertaining to curriculum improvement. A curriculum journal is published four times a year under direction of the commission.

At present, four study groups, each of which is giving attention to an important area of emphasis in the curriculum are being sponsored by the department in collaboration with colleges and with the local schools. These efforts are in addition to the state-wide in-service education program which has been under way for seven or eight years. The study groups and their areas are:

The State Advisory Committee on Guidance Services, formed in 1948 to aid schools in meeting the needs of youth through improved guidance services.

The State Advisory Committee on the School's Responsibility in the Field of Human Growth and Relations, organized in 1948 to study ways in which schools could help youth solve problems such as "getting along with people," "making friends," "choosing a job" and "keeping strong and healthy." The Committee for Study of Problems of the Small High-School District, developed in 1947 to bring together a group of school people to devise techniques by which the curriculum of the small high school could be improved. A workshop was held in the fall of 1948 which pointed the way for life adjustment education in small high schools. Workshop participants have invited staff members of neighboring small high schools to study with them ways by which a small high school can meet the needs of youth.

The State-Wide Committee on Outdoor Education, which sponsored during the past school year a one-week experimental outdoor education project for older youth. Sixty students, with teachers and consultants, worked, studied and lived in a camping situation. Participants and observers in their evaluation stressed the values received from outdoor education.

These are examples of the leadership role being played in curriculum improvement by state departments of education. Similar accounts might well be enumerated from many other states.

Role of Colleges and Universities

Colleges and universities have a major responsibility for developing leadership both at the pre-service and in-service levels. These institutions in many states have provided staff members to

give needed services to those who are in training and to those in service.

A college or university has two major responsibilities to the people of college age in its service areas—one is to provide general education at the college level for all its citizens who attend; the other is to provide special and professional education in as many areas of action as needs may justify and in which its facilities will enable it to do effective work. The teachers college should accept as its obligation (a) the provision of general citizenship education for those who attend and (b) special and professional education for those who will enter and who are already in the teaching profession.

Major emphasis in the education of teachers is placed upon developing special professional competencies needed by those who, when they graduate, will enter teaching. The college must be conscious of what goes on in the schools in its service area if its pre-service program is to provide for development of those competencies needed by teachers who will go into schools. To keep alert to the needs of the schools, the college must be an integral part of the area it serves. Staff members in special and professional teaching areas must become agents through which the college may keep informed of school needs. This means that it is essential to the pre-service program in teacher preparation that staffs from these special and professional departments of the college shall take part in the developing programs of elementary and secondary schools and school systems in its service area. This they may do through general and specialized advisory, consultant services in the phases of public school programs which touch their own work interests.

The curriculum concept, acceptable as a basis of teacher preparation, assumes that the curriculum is the selection, classification and organization of learning materials and experiences in terms of the abilities, aptitudes, interests and life purposes of the individual child and in terms of personal, family and community problems and needs. The curriculum cannot be made until the child comes into the picture. This means that curriculum making involves both children-learning and teacher-learning.

In teacher preparation programs, consequently, prospective teachers must do their learning where the children are and where the problems exist. The staff responsible for preparing teachers

must be in-and-out of the teacher-learning situations as they are found in the area. College faculty members work with elementary and secondary school teachers in service and are themselves challenged by the same experiences. They are thus kept constantly aware not only of competencies needed by their students who will go into teaching service, but also of those competencies which they themselves need to develop and to improve.

Major emphasis is placed upon helping teachers and others of professional staffs now in service to improve their ways of working in schools and communities. The teachers college is concerned with helping school faculties and other professional personnel find resources which will help them solve as effectively as possible living-learning problems.

Leadership in curriculum making must emerge from groups of people who work together on learning problems. It is not the function of those who go from college staffs into communities as consultants to point out problems which should be met, but rather to help individuals and groups in service to identify their own problems, and to find together the best possible solutions. The best leadership service the teachers college can provide for curriculum improvement is to work with individuals and groups so that leadership will emerge as problems are being cooperatively identified and solved.

Curriculum Improvement in Alabama

The State Teachers College at Florence, Alabama, has tried to apply the principles implied in the foregoing statements. Each person who works with teachers in service takes to the group his own ability to work with people who are interested in the area of learning or the school level in which he himself has major interests. He takes back to the college keener insight into the problems faced in actual situations, and this new insight is reflected in the way he deals with teachers in preparation. This college during the school year 1949-50 worked with school staffs in at least five counties on specific types of programs pointed toward improvement of instruction.

One college staff member with considerable ability in working with groups assisted the supervisory staff and the county planning committee of Cullman County in organizing and conducting a one-week workshop. The purpose of the workshop was to help teachers learn more about the growth needs of children

and how to meet these needs. Since the same college staff member was interested primarily in this problem he served as a full-time consultant in the workshop which he had helped to plan.

Two members of the professional staff of the Alabama college are serving as consultants in the areas of their interests in the all-year in-service program in Morgan County. In addition to working with the entire school staff of the county in a three-day planning-work conference, these consultants have helped groups who face special problems to define these problems and find ways to meet them.

One staff member has worked with Limestone County teachers in meetings every five weeks throughout the year. Two major problems seem important to these teachers. One is how to use boys and girls as resource persons in helping the school meet more effectively the problems of living; another is how to identify the art resources which may be used in improving the quality of living in the county.

In two other Alabama counties and in one city, college staffs have worked through the year in helping leaders get their schools to respond more effectively to the needs of learners.

In January 1950, the teachers college in Florence invited selected persons from elementary and secondary schools to come to the campus for two days to talk with the professional education staff concerning needs which the college should meet in its pre-service education program. Twenty-three competent persons from the field participated in extended sessions during which elementary-secondary school curriculum problems were related to the purposes of teacher education. College staff members occupied the position of learners and the persons from the elementary and secondary schools were the consultants. Other meetings with other groups are to be held throughout this year and next.

This college staff believes that it has resource persons who can help identify problems in the field and assist local people in solving these problems. This staff believes that there are resource persons in the elementary and secondary schools who can help define problems with which the college must deal in teacher preparation. This college is making its resource persons available to the elementary and secondary schools and using resource persons from these schools to help in planning its own program.

A New Approach in Michigan

Wayne University of Detroit, Michigan, offers an example of an in-service program in which status leaders look critically at their own work.⁴ In 1948-49 twenty-one school administrators and teachers of the River Rouge, Michigan, school system and a consultant from the university met on thirty-two occasions. Two hours were given to each session in order to determine: What conditions prevent our doing better work? What are the causes of these conditions? What can or should be done about them?

Most of the time was spent in two work groups—one dealing with administrator-teacher relations and one with administrator-community relations. In order to focus on process, group members used bi-weekly logs to consider such questions as: What is happening to the project of your group? What is happening to your group and to the individuals in it? What may be blocking progress in your group?

Turning first to conditions which limit group process, the school people learned that a block may be an individual, a room in which the group meets, the nature of the problem being considered, prevailing social custom, biased or stereotyped thinking, or the background of the participants. The block may be clothed in suspicion, hostility, aggressiveness, perfectionism, confusion, frivolity or argumentation. It may be that the enthusiasm of some persons in the group has impeded development of readiness for group thinking and action.

An atmosphere unfavorable to group understanding and co-operation was found to be caused, in part at least, by differences among individuals and by an unsympathetic group setting. Unfamiliarity with group process also sometimes resulted in lack of enthusiasm. Allowing individual whims to become more important than the over-all process also tended to impede the work. Some individuals appeared to believe they must never allow themselves to become part of a group. Many felt the process lent itself to extreme generalization with little regard for the specifics involved.

Frequently mentioned as a block was the warfare in terminology which both groups apparently experienced. Still another was the continuous defense of "pet theories." Research was

⁴ *Educational Leadership*, 7:470-74, April 1950.

not considered important, possibly due more to unreadiness than to unwillingness of participants. Another hindrance to the process was the inability to develop group solidarity with respect to proposed decisions. Some felt that the presence of top administrators limited individual participation.

Many of these difficulties were overcome by the realization that individual differences produced a wholesome condition for cooperative thought and action. Most members agreed that each participant must have the right to "speak his mind" without fear of censure or reproach. Members tended gradually to accept one another with mutual respect, and to show patience and forbearance in many potentially trying situations. A social coffee period preceding each weekly meeting was most conducive to an easy interchange of ideas.

The consultant's work in helping members see relationships within the projects served to sharpen the focus of group effort. Rotation of chairmen and recorders helped each to feel responsibility for progress. Library resources and bibliographies stimulated group thinking. The fact that experience in group work was new to some increased their interest and enthusiasm.

Although members of the status leadership study group showed obvious signs of discouragement from time to time during the year's study together, there were also many evidences of willingness and determination to go beyond the scope of their own study. This conviction, held also by the administrative staff, resulted in the planning of a second year's work. Two consultants were made available through Wayne University and a group of about sixty teachers and administrators began work in September 1949.

Cooperation in the Southeast

Programs of curriculum improvement as they have developed in the Southeast have involved considerable cooperation between the public schools and institutions of higher learning. Organization of the program usually provides for representation of the college faculties on the state-wide central committee. Colleges are the centers of regional organization, the coordinator for the region usually being a member of a college faculty. The coordinator works intimately with planning committees representing school administrators and teachers of the region which the college serves.

Growing out of the regional responsibility of the colleges,

state institutions have been giving some of their instructors field assignments as consultants. These duties have required that instructors spend as many as two or three days a week in contact with teachers, supervisors and administrators.

Several state departments of education conduct a series of regional conferences which are held at a college or university. Responsibility for the program is assumed by the local institution. This institution usually provides facilities for the meetings and makes a special effort to give a friendly and comfortable setting for the conferences.

Teachers colleges and universities which have participated in a program of curriculum improvement have usually taken steps to reconstruct their own laboratory schools. They have made these schools centers for observation and demonstration of improved classroom practices. In some instances the colleges have established continuing cooperative relationships with public schools that serve as experimental centers for the surrounding area. Those institutions which have cooperated in curriculum development have succeeded in getting closer to many teachers and to the children in the classroom. Instructors who in the past have conducted formal and theoretical extension courses have been induced to concern themselves with the daily practical problems of the teacher; they have become more serviceable to the individual school; and likewise they have contributed more to the improvement of instruction in the region which they serve.

Role of School Study Councils and Regional Associations

School study councils and regional associations are providing increasingly effective leadership for development of better curricular practices. The Metropolitan School Study Council in the New York area, with its comprehensive studies and reports, has influenced schools over the nation. The New England School Development Council is a grass roots organization which serves the New England region. Another school study council which exerts influence for improved practices is the Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Cooperative School Studies.

In the South, similar cooperative organizations are found. For a number of years, the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems has made an important contribution in the southeastern United States. This organization

grew out of the cooperative action of state educational associations and state departments of education.

Another association which is giving effective leadership is the Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education. An enumeration of this organization's activities will illustrate the kinds of activities which councils and associations are rendering in many areas of the nation.

A Regional Association Gives Leadership

The Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education has been established to explore the responsibility of the parent organization to elementary education, and to focus attention on the critical educational problems existing at the lower levels of our educational system. Within a space of two years, marked improvement has been observed in provision made for the education of children in thirteen southern states. Undoubtedly some of the changes have come about as a result of stimulation received through participation in regional study.

The Cooperative Study is sponsored by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association. It also has the support of two other Southern Association commissions, the Commission on Institutions of Higher Learning and the Commission on Secondary Schools. Six other agencies are lending support—the Southern Council on Elementary Education, the Southern Conference on Teacher Education, the Deans of Education in Southern States, the Southern University Conference, the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, and the Southern States Work-Conference on Educational Problems. In addition, the state departments of education and the state educational associations provide direct assistance. The General Education Board has provided financial support for the study.

Organizing a Region

The Cooperative Study in Elementary Education is entirely a voluntary venture. It attempts to focus attention upon the problems of elementary education and to rally forces at local, state and regional levels to improve learning opportunities for all children in the South. The study functions through state committees. Members, originally selected by the state departments of education, represent every level of educational service—elementary, secondary, administrative, collegiate.

The chairman of each state committee serves as a member of the regional Central Coordinating Committee, which is a planning group for the total study.⁵ All personnel, except the coordinator of the study, serve without remuneration. The Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, provides secretarial and mailing assistance and office space for the coordinator.

Regional Program in Action

A year ago the Central Coordinating Committee selected four problem areas for concentrated regional action. These areas of emphasis resulted through a pooling of the problems which had been defined in the thirteen participating states. Committees were established to encourage regional work in:

Gathering data on elementary education in the South and presenting this data to the lay public in concise, understandable terms.

Developing suitable procedures and instruments for evaluating elementary schools.

Improving the recruitment, selection and education of elementary teachers, principals and supervisors.

Initiating a program of action designed to develop better elementary schools and to accelerate improvements in curriculum and teaching.

The committee gathering information on what is happening to children has struggled with the problem of securing comparable data from each of the southern states. Terminology differs and classifications vary considerably. As the committee has worked, conviction has grown that a "charter" for elementary education in the South is needed. The charter is envisioned as a simple, attractive statement, drafted by workshop groups with regional representation, which may be used with lay groups to explain what is needed if children are to have excellent learning experiences at school. The charter is to be distributed widely throughout the South.

⁵ H. Arnold Perry, University of North Carolina, is chairman of the steering group; Charles R. Spain, George Peabody College for Teachers, is vice chairman; and J. B. White, University of Florida, is secretary. Three consultants work with the Central Coordinating Committee: John E. Brewton, George Peabody College for Teachers; Henry J. Otto, University of Texas; and T. M. Stinnett, associate secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association.

The committee working on the problem of evaluation has developed an instrument which was used on an experimental basis during the school year 1949-50 by as many as ten to fifteen schools in each of the participating states. The publication was developed in a workshop under the leadership of W. T. Edwards, held during the summer of 1949 at Florida State University. It focuses attention upon qualitative indications of excellence, and upon plans for improvement. The faculties which worked with the publication participated in its revision. Reports indicate that a staff develops oneness of purpose in school improvement as it seriously attempts to use the publication in evaluating the effect of the school's efforts on the children and the community.

The work-conference sponsored by the Cooperative Study in Elementary Education in June 1949 at Daytona Beach, Florida, considered the problems of teacher education and teacher welfare. A preliminary report which was drafted at the conclusion of the conference was mimeographed and distributed to participants. Additional consideration was given at the 1950 work-conference to suggestions for improving the education of elementary school personnel. A publication on this topic is in preparation.

The committee working on a program of action has encouraged elementary schools throughout the South to carry on a program of school-community improvement and to report promising practices. It is anticipated that reports from the cooperating schools, now numbering more than five hundred, will illustrate the essential elements of good education outlined in the "charter." To increase desirable practices throughout the South, many illustrations will be compiled, and an attractive bulletin published.

The Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education might be just another study which publishes a few reports of limited influence if its regional activities were confined to the four projects previously described. The cooperative study is in reality bringing about changes at the local level most effectively through the state organizations. No two state groups are working in identical ways or upon the same problems. Similarities exist, of course, but effort from the very outset of the study has been toward stimulating local action on local problems. To indicate the diversity which exists within the over-all study, several examples may be cited.

What Is Happening in the States

In Arkansas the Elementary Council has developed a *Guide for Study of the Elementary School*, a *Handbook for Elementary Teachers* and also a pamphlet entitled *Fun in Learning*. These contain stories of teachers' experiences in seventeen situations. In addition to these publications, which grew out of the problems recognized by the group, the council has sponsored a state-wide child study program which is now in its third year. Also the council is working for improvement of professional leadership in the elementary school. With other groups, the council has sponsored workshops for principals and currently is preparing a bulletin on good supervisory practices.

In Georgia the Committee on Elementary Education has established throughout the state a number of pilot schools. These demonstration centers, with the help of the State Department of Education, are making special efforts to improve the instructional program. Teachers and principals from near-by schools are encouraged to visit the key centers. A mimeographed bulletin entitled, *Learning Together*, summarizing the activities of these demonstration centers, is published periodically. *Educational Leadership* has carried reports which have emanated from the improvement program in Georgia.

In Virginia, efforts of the elementary committee have resulted in an excellent publication entitled *The Characteristics of the Good Elementary School*, and a more recent evaluative instrument called *Looking at Our Elementary School*. These two bulletins have been developed to help school people look critically at present practices in elementary education and to project plans for improvement. It should be noted that although an evaluation instrument has been developed by the regional group, several of the state groups working independently have published their own bulletins on evaluation. Such interaction is deemed desirable by the study's Central Coordinating Committee.

In Louisiana and Texas certification standards have been raised for teachers and principals. In Florida the committee has directed most of its attention to the South-wide evaluation program. The Mississippi committee has effectively encouraged able young people to choose teaching in elementary schools as a life career. Several approaches, involving teacher education institutions, superintendents of schools, guidance workers in high schools and professional organizations in the state have been

used in this recruitment program. In North Carolina attention is being centered on problems of leadership in elementary education. A workshop is planned for elementary school supervisors in the state. The South Carolina group is interested in problems of teacher recruitment, selection and education. The Kentucky Committee on Elementary Education has published a report entitled *Toward Better Schools for Kentucky's Children*. As a result of these findings a statement of goals for elementary education in Kentucky has been developed and circulated widely.

In Oklahoma a general upsurge of interest in elementary education is evident. The Elementary Principals Association recently published its first yearbook, *Better Elementary Schools for Oklahoma Children*. The elementary principals in Tennessee also have achieved an effective organization through efforts of the state committee in elementary education. An attractive little booklet entitled *What's Happening to Children* has been published by the Tennessee Association for Childhood Education as part of the state study. The statement of goals has been accepted by the governor as the basis for a ten-year program of school improvement in the state. A committee on community schools publishes a monthly bulletin. In Alabama the State Committee is encouraging elementary schools to become participating members in the state improvement program by making application and identifying the problem or problems which the faculty designates as being most crucial. The state is divided into areas, and consultant services are provided each faculty as need for outside assistance in improving the school's program becomes evident.

Why the Regional Plan Is Sound

In the foregoing analysis it is possible to discern several important concepts which are basic to a regional plan of action such as that conceived and supported by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association. First, encouragement and stimulation are provided for local groups to work on problems which they recognize as important; second, the study functions through already established agencies, especially the state departments of education; third, regional problems in elementary education are considered by regional groups, and promising solutions are shared; fourth, practices which point the way toward better education for children in the region are disseminated to parents, teacher-education institu-

tions and school systems; fifth, participation is voluntary and groups are encouraged to solve their common problems through cooperative thinking, sharing and planning.

At approximately the halfway mark in the projected life of the Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, there seems little doubt that its method of work is achieving results. Better educational experiences are in store for the children of the southern region. Progress is being made.

The Changing Role of Supervisors

The current interpretation of the curriculum as consisting of all those experiences that come under the guidance of the school places tremendous importance upon the teacher as curriculum builder. To the extent that the teacher's resources are extended and enriched and utilized, the curriculum of his pupils will be fuller and more meaningful. This concept of the teacher's function in curriculum-making means, further, that as curriculum change occurs it is essentially brought about by changes in teachers rather than by the production of printed courses of study.

In consequence, the supervisor's role with respect to curriculum improvement takes on added significance. The distinctive function of this educational leader is to provide guidance, encouragement and rich opportunities for the in-service development of teachers. Indeed, the good supervisor today does not serve as an official charged with standardizing the program and methods of teaching. Instead, he is a resource person, coordinator, service agent and consultant. He uses his competence in such manner that his professional colleagues, the teachers, may provide children in the everyday experiences of school life with satisfying and effective learning opportunities.

Helping Teachers Gain New Insight

In bringing about the changes that accompany genuine in-service growth and that result in a more vital curriculum, the supervisor may provide varied types of service as well as opportunities for teachers. One field of assistance lies in introducing teachers to new kinds of insight and understanding. The child study program illustrates such an opportunity. Many teachers now in service have had little or no pre-service education in the field of human development. Yet scientific facts

and concepts related to human growth have great significance for changes in the way teachers work with children, what they teach and how they appraise the progress of boys and girls. The supervisor who opens up the avenue for professional development along this line is contributing directly to the teachers' power to make such curricular changes.

How is the supervisor today giving assistance in this field? In one system the supervisory staff has found the following types of activity to be helpful: introducing teachers to the professional literature so rapidly emerging in the area of human development; helping teachers to acquire techniques for effective parent-teacher conferences and home visits so that better understanding of the child may result; focusing classroom contacts between teacher and supervisor, not upon methods, but rather upon the study of factors influencing the behavior of individuals in the classroom; facilitating the curricular adjustments which may be considered necessary as a result of such study; interesting teachers in seeing each child's role in his peer group and suggesting ways of studying such group relations; leading or sponsoring a long-term child study group as an organized approach to the scientific study of child growth.

In the course of such activities as these, several other matters of importance to the curriculum have taken place. Instructional materials have come in for scrutiny and the supervisor has drawn upon his resources to provide teachers with instructional aids and books better suited to individuals. Methods of appraising progress also have received study. The supervisor has been able to support the teachers in developing, through conferences and more comprehensive report cards, more adequate ways of communicating pupil progress to parents. Questions having to do with classifying and promoting pupils have sometimes formed a basis for continuing study and for changing curriculum goals and standards.

Putting Curriculum Trends Into Practice

The supervisor has a very real function in helping teachers become aware of curriculum trends and in helping them to implement these trends in classroom practice. One such illustration may be found in the growing emphasis upon cooperative planning in the classroom. In order that consideration of group planning might not be merely verbal, one supervisor set about exemplifying, in all his relationships with the teachers, the prin-

ciples and techniques of cooperative thinking and action. His staff meetings provided for group decisions regarding the setting of goals, the development of plans, the determining of small committee responsibilities, the cooperative evaluation of progress, and the discussion of joint suggestions regarding problems.

Firsthand experience of this type helped the teachers to recognize the greater values for effective learning that are attached to this way of living. The teachers began to feel more adequate when working with their pupils in cooperative relationships. The supervisor, too, when classroom problems in group living arose, was a more helpful consultant because of his own direct experiences in working out with teachers a more satisfactory group process. Professional publications in this field assumed a new significance for the teachers, as did the visit of a nationally known expert who was brought in to help the teaching staff evaluate their progress in providing situations through which children could learn to live together democratically.

In one large city system, instead of rushing a curriculum bulletin or course of study on meaningful arithmetic into print, the supervisory staff used a number of approaches to assist teachers in gaining a better understanding of this area and to encourage teachers to undertake new ventures in arithmetic instruction.

One group of teachers interested in arithmetic instruction pursued for an extended period a study of written materials relating to meaningful arithmetic. They later discussed with several consultants questions and problems which they had noted as a result of this study. In time, members of this group, under supervisory guidance, conducted a series of workshops through which many other teachers were brought into voluntary contact with basic concepts and with new instructional materials, some of which were homemade and some commercially prepared. New arithmetic texts were evaluated and recommended for try-out.

When individual school faculties began to manifest interest, a program of cooperative study and action was launched, with the elementary supervisor serving as consultant. Upon request, individual faculty members demonstrated for other teachers some of the new practices. These demonstrations were usually followed by faculty conferences. City-wide demonstrations and an exhibit of instructional materials grew out of efforts by many schools to improve their program of arithmetic instruction. Issuance of arithmetic bulletins came as a culminative, rather

than initial step in this long-term effort to effect a vital and meaningful instructional program in arithmetic for elementary pupils.

Providing Opportunities for Sharing Experiences

Encouragement of a "broken front" approach to curriculum improvement affords the supervisor still another opportunity for service. He is in a particularly favorable position to bring about what Kandel years ago described as the function of supervision, "the cross-fertilization of ideas." He is able to provide leadership in facilitating the interchange of professional experience and understanding because he is in a position to see the activities and interests of individual teachers and to sense opportunities for their effective sharing. To this end, the supervisor has a very real function in arranging for intervisitation. This practice helps teachers working on similar units see with what success different groups of children have had valuable learning experiences within the same content area. It also helps teachers become acquainted with new or different materials, processes or activities developed in other classrooms, and to grow in professional insight through the process of group thinking on a common interest.

One supervisor found teachers in several schools concerned about providing a reading program richly varied to meet the instructional levels of individuals and yet soundly balanced in content. He sponsored an extended intervisitation program. Teachers working with various maturity levels shared their classroom situations by inviting any interested colleague to come and observe their work with children at different age levels. As a result of these voluntary demonstrations and conferences, occurring over a period of five months, an evaluation session was held, at which time teachers developed a number of helpful criteria for improving the reading program. The supervisor's summarizing contribution included an annotated bibliography of materials which the group had used or in which they had become interested, a reading interest inventory for pupils and a digest of the group's thinking on the entire problem of reading.

Another supervisor cultivated in much the same fashion the particular interest of two school faculties in an improved science program. He brought to the schools pertinent professional and instructional materials, and provided interested teachers with opportunities to discuss problems and to exchange experiences.

He capitalized on the good work thus accomplished so as to advance the general level of science teaching through the sharing of individual experiences.

Working Closely with Teachers

Another type of service which, though not new, is of great importance, is that of the supervisor's assistance through his everyday contacts with the classroom situation. As the supervisor sees the teacher working with children, he is able to help the teacher identify and use the curricular opportunities provided by the situation. The supervisor is in a position to detect promising interests on the part of individual children and to see problems emerging which may offer possibilities for fuller development. As he guides the teacher toward an awareness of these leads, toward development of worth-while activities growing out of them, and toward evaluation of new opportunities, the supervisor is helping to translate into practice the much-used phrase, "an emerging curriculum." He also is encouraging the teacher to feel greater adequacy and security in venturing into new areas.

As the supervisor works with individual teachers, he may be able to provide expert help in another aspect of curriculum improvement, that of bringing outside resources into the classroom or school program. He can acquaint faculty members and pupils with new and appropriate materials. Sometimes he does this by actually supplying the materials. In other cases he may be able to point out possibilities for developing or securing such materials. He can assist, too, with new activities and new processes which will enrich the instructional program. For instance, the supplying of kilns to schools in one locality led to workshop experiences through which the teachers learned to work with ceramics. They, in turn, gave their pupils many opportunities to enjoy this creative and artistic work.

At times the supervisor who is alert to the program in the individual school or classroom is in a strategic position to make use of individuals who can contribute to the work that is under way. Sometimes he can help to identify community resources and to use these to advantage in the school situation. This type of assistance may involve such a simple process as that of bringing the right member of the community into contact with the class. On the other hand, such assistance may involve also an extended study of community resources. In a very tangible

way, however, each type of supervisory service results in curriculum growth.

The supervisor today is in a favored position for contributing to curriculum improvement. As a service agent, he seeks to make teachers conscious of new types of professional insight, through giving them an awareness of new trends and through facilitating the interchange of professional experience. The supervisor also helps teachers to develop new sensitivity to opportunities provided by the pupils themselves, to make use of appropriate instructional materials, and to improve their knowledge of children and of the community in which the children live.

Teams of Administrators and Supervisors

With the individual school as the focal point of program improvement, team supervision is evolving as a means of more effective resource help. When a faculty sets out to realize the over-all objectives of the school, greater emphasis is put upon the face-to-face contacts of supervisors with individual teachers. Many new types of help are necessary. This help can be most effective when made available through team coordination.

When the staff of an individual school proceeds to develop its own school program, some problems undoubtedly will arise. These problems, because of their number and complexity, may at first seem almost insurmountable. They may involve difficulties with relationships, or with the defining of objectives, or with ways of working together, or with organizational practices, or with financial limitations, or with the lack of balanced teaching competencies within the staff. Other considerations, too, may arise which involve many aspects of the curriculum, teaching methods and techniques.

Staffs often can go far under their own power and on their own initiative. But under any conditions wise use of supervisory and administrative resources can improve and extend the results of their programs. This does not mean that administrators and supervisors will be asked to come in to do a job of telling. Rather, these resource persons may be able to help the local staff better to define their problems and to explore possible solutions. Those invited to help should be people who can evoke the best thinking within the staff. They should be persons who can help faculty members find a sense of security in their procedures and in their way of working.

Many persons are available for service on teams. In school systems where there are central office supervisors, directors, consultants, school nurses and others, there exist many types of possible team combinations. There are also principals, school counselors and teachers, as well as special personnel from agencies or other institutions in the community or near-by colleges and universities who may be drawn upon as possible team members.

One Virginia county is currently attempting an experiment in team supervision. This project began when a school faculty recognized a need for giving greater attention to the social and emotional adjustment of its pupils. Once the need was carefully studied and defined, the staff decided that several types of persons could be helpful to them. The team invited to give them assistance was made up of a school supervisor, a parent, a psychologist and a visiting teacher.

Before the team met with the school staff, its members came together for planning and discussion. They went over the material which the faculty had developed. The supervisor was the person responsible for establishing the relationship between the staff and the team. She also brought to the team a report of the staff's preliminary thinking and tentative analysis.

Making Use of Specific Competencies

Team help offers many possibilities for use of special competencies available within the administrative unit. Each individual needs to feel that he is playing a significant role and making a worth-while contribution. In curriculum work, many individuals should be enabled to use their special competencies through service as resource persons to appropriate staff groups. For example, a principal who has done outstanding work in a school or a teacher who has shown marked ability in work with children may at times render invaluable assistance to such groups.

Many service possibilities exist for persons working in individual schools, in the central office, in the state department, in the local community or in near-by colleges. This implies that competencies will be discovered and records kept of these so that persons can be selected for teams with a minimum of time and effort. It may also mean long-term planning. In some instances planning for the type of teams needed will have to be done a month, three months or even a year in advance.

Teams are likely to be most effective when their members are selected and their efforts coordinated in terms of problems with which they must deal. The make-up of the group should reflect the type of situation it must meet. This calls for careful analysis of the job which is to be assigned to a team. Team membership should be flexible so that changes can be made or persons added in order to insure balanced consultative help.

Organizing for Effective Group Work

As teams are selected, some persons must see to it that the group operates effectively. Each team should have a chairman. Designation of the chairman will depend upon the nature and purpose of the service to be rendered. This may mean that at times the chairman will be named before or at the time the team is selected. Usually, however, the chairman will be chosen by the team members. The chairman might be a principal, teacher, parent, specialist from a community agency or a person from outside the community. Sometimes it may be well to have a person from the central office staff assume responsibility as chairman so that team operation can be coordinated with other services rendered by the supervisory staff.

The length of a team's existence will depend upon the need for help which it renders. In some cases a team may be activated and oriented, and then serve only for a meeting or two. Other teams may be active for as long as they can make a contribution and serve individual school staffs. It is conceivable that a team may be active over a period of a year or two with some changes in personnel as needs arise.

The Illinois State Life Adjustment Program offers an example of team resource help on a large scale. Teams are made up of persons from the State Department of Education, colleges and universities, and individual school staffs.

Team effort must be coordinated. A first step in coordination is the selection of persons who can supplement one another with regard to services to be rendered. When the initial selection of members has been made, however, further coordination of the team's efforts is the chairman's responsibility. Coordination can be furthered as ways of working are explored. Such coordination, however, will not come about spontaneously. It must be provided for as teams are set up, as they develop working techniques and as effective procedures are identified and used.

Through a team approach, competencies of administrators, supervisors, teachers, outside consultants and others can be focused effectively upon individual school problems. This approach multiplies the help that a central office staff can provide because many persons become potential team workers. It makes possible the coordinated help of individuals who otherwise would not be called upon outside their own immediate group. A team approach gives a broader basis of sharing and draws upon the potential resources which can be found in every local community. Too many curriculum programs assume that the only suitable resource people are to be found on the professional school staff.

Role of the Status Leader as Consultant

All educational workers may be thought of as status leaders. The teacher, principal, supervisor, director, superintendent or other individual appointed or elected to such a responsibility as president or chairman of an organization or committee—each is a status person. Customarily status individuals are chosen to exert initiative, give directions or assume full responsibility for any necessary action.

The status person is with us and it is well that some people are designated for this role. What is needed is not elimination of status persons, but rather re-definition of the possible functions of such individuals. The status leader has a necessary function; but under a democratic concept of leadership this function differs radically from that commonly found in line-and-staff organizations.

Alice Miel⁶ presents four functions of the democratic status leader: (a) improving the human relations within the group; (b) furnishing expertness along certain lines; (c) generating leadership in others; and (d) coordinating the efforts of other participants in the program.

Other functions may need to be performed. For example, the status leader should take responsibility for helping groups define their purposes and formulate a plan of action which will result in achievement of their objectives. He should also see to it that essential resources are made available so that groups can operate and so that individuals can carry on their proper work.

⁶ Miel, Alice. *Changing the Curriculum*. New York: Appleton-Century 1946. p. 159.

Friendly, Democratic Relations Are Established

These functions actually imply a new concept for the role of the status leader. They suggest that high priority be given to the developing of warm, friendly, human relationships. This results when there is recognition of and appreciation for the potentialities of each individual. There must be a permissive atmosphere which fosters development of the creative potentialities in each person. Responsibilities should be widely delegated since it has been found that individuals working cooperatively, if given the opportunity, can raise the quality of action.

The status leader's task is to facilitate arrangements and make opportunities possible. He should handle finances, make provision for group meetings, see that appropriate materials are available and make such arrangements as are necessary for the accomplishment by individuals and groups of things which need to be done.

The status leader must have a strong belief that the best results will come through cooperative action of all those concerned. This belief must come from a sincere realization that decisions freely arrived at through consensus have greater potentialities than isolated ideas and actions of individuals. If accepted, this belief requires a follow-through which will enable groups to continue to learn and grow while they share and work together.

There must be respect for competence. All competence should be recognized and utilized. When the point is reached at which outside help will be of benefit, the status leader should make such help possible and available.

A group organization must be designed so that all those involved can participate. This means that a new horizontal concept of staff operations should be created. Every individual should be recognized as a possible source of inspiration and ideas. Under such a plan of working, everyone has a channel for presenting suggestions, starting ideas or bringing up for consideration those things he feels are important. The status person is the one who can make possible the evolving of a functional design for working together. Such a concept is essential if the resources of all are to be coordinated and utilized.

Every status person should be able to serve as a consultant. There will be certain areas of competence which are essential.

One area has to do with the establishing of rapport with others, with establishing a climate for easy communication among individuals and groups, and with knowing people as persons. To help establish these relationships one must become truly concerned about the problems and needs of co-workers and become interested in the welfare of others. The status leader should be able to help individual teachers obtain the security which they need on the job and in their personal lives.

How Status People Give Assistance

The status person should be so skillful in some areas that he will be able to inspire others to grow in these areas. He also needs to be well informed and to know many sources of reference. Status persons may well be represented as of two types. First of these is the generalist, who usually has a broad background of experience and who also is an expert in a particular area. A second status person is the specialist whose professional competencies are more or less confined to a particular area. The professional services of these two types of status individuals will have points of similarity, and will differ at other points. Both generalist and specialist will work within the same frame of reference. They will both have in mind as they work the welfare of the total school program.

The generalist should give concern and attention to the development of leadership in others. He should also give attention to coordination of the work of individuals and groups. In relation to this, he should give attention to coordination of the total instructional program, and to its articulation from school to school and from maturity level to maturity level. He should work also for articulation of the program of the school with that of the community. He should try to guide the attention of individuals from special to mutual and common interests. The generalist has responsibility for facilitating and making action possible. He needs to know how to use the specialist and how to help others utilize services which are available both within the staff and the community. The generalist helps in making the services of specialists available to and more effective for individual school staffs.

The specialist, too, is essential if school programs are to be improved. If expertness is respected, then the specialist has a vital role to play. His contribution is likely to differ from that of the generalist. The task of the specialist will be one

of refining objectives and seeking abilities in specific and related areas. He needs to see his own specialty in relation to the broad program to be developed. Persons with special interests and activities can help others become sensitive to new possibilities and then help them to expand their competencies. To work most effectively, the specialist must approach his field with a broad viewpoint. Much of his time should be given to team effort, whereas the generalist can sometimes work well with total faculty groups.

As the specialist works with others, he develops a wide perspective. At the same time, those who work with the specialist will gain insight and abilities in specialized areas. The specialist's great contribution is that of helping others attain greater competency and understanding on an ever-expanding scale.

Fitting Into School Needs

The status leader can often make his greatest contribution by serving as a consultant and guide. Being of service presupposes that the person has a resource needed by individuals and groups. In order for the status person to function, ways of working and securing help need to be decided upon by all those involved. Policies should be established and a design should be set up for getting and giving the help decided upon as being needed. If there is widespread participation in all phases of resource use, procedures and channels for the securing of help must be understood. The effectiveness of the status leader's work will be determined by his expertness along certain lines and particularly by how well he can work with others.

Possibly the best way to use the status leader is on an individual school basis. If the school unit becomes the focal point for using resource persons, then each staff will need to develop an individual school program. In developing the program there will be times when help will be needed. It will become the staff's responsibility to decide the type of expertness upon which they wish to draw. This means there must be careful defining of direction and of the specific type or types of help needed. Where needs are diverse, a team of consultants made up of several kinds of experts may be drawn upon. The defining of purposes and of the specific ways the consultant can help will result in the wisest use of the status person's time.

Status leaders should be on call. But being on call need not

mean simply sitting around waiting to be asked by a school staff to participate. To serve as a consultant, one needs to become well acquainted with what staffs are doing, what problems they are encountering and what successes they are having. One must also be well aware of what other school systems are doing. All available resources should be known and used. With this background the status person can exert leadership, give encouragement and help provide a climate which will be conducive to personal growth and broad curriculum improvement.

Wise Use of the Status Leader

Wise use of the status leader can best be made through a cooperative approach to curriculum improvement. This implies a permissive attitude on the part of the leader in regard to total staff participation. Within such a frame of reference, status leaders, too, can grow in democratic procedures. As each person participates he can become more sensitive to the role which he can play most effectively.

If status leaders are to perform their best service, their abilities and potentialities must be well known. A study might be made to reveal the various types of expert service available in the central office staff, individual school staffs, and among parents and other lay persons in the community.

Status leaders should make a special effort to develop competencies that are essential to improving school programs. Where there are gaps in expertness within the local staff, special efforts should be made to fill these gaps. This can be done by in-service experiences directed toward development of the desired abilities. There are also many opportunities to encourage such growth at workshops and conferences and on college campuses during the summer.

Among essential competencies to be developed are the techniques of resource use. A status leader may have all the necessary skill, yet the group will need to know how to use this expert ability so that his services will be most effective. Some of the steps which can be taken both by the groups using the leader and by the leader and other consultants are:

Develop a plan as to what the individual staff or groups wish to achieve. There should be long-time as well as immediate objectives.

There should be an enumeration of areas in which the group needs help.

The group should decide upon the individual or team that can best give this help.

Narrative descriptions of what the group members hope to achieve and how they wish to proceed should be prepared.

These statements of objectives and procedures should accompany any request for consultative or resource help.

The status leader upon receiving the invitation from the group should make adequate preparation for giving the service expected of him.

He should study the material sent by the group.

He should study the services expected of the resource person or persons.

The first meeting of the resource person or persons with the group should start with a planning session which results in a layout of objectives and procedures.

When a team is working cooperatively, its members will get together from time to time to exchange information and to make decisions as to what the next emphasis shall be. Such sessions will assist the team in making a coordinated contribution.

As resource persons work, notes should be taken. These may be brief and yet give a picture of the situation. If appropriate records are kept, status people can use these to improve their own techniques and in this way add to their future effectiveness.

When the status person develops the competencies necessary for helping others and when those to be helped wisely plan their use of the expert, schools will be moving toward most effective use of the status leader.

How Lay Leadership Is Developed

Full use of democratic practices in the American school awaits greater lay participation in school affairs. The public schools in this country are governed by boards of education whose primary task is to decide school policy. Decisions by boards of education which will foster democratic practices in schools can be obtained and effected only through lay interest, support and leadership. Such leadership on the part of lay citizens must be developed by the forward-looking teacher and administrator if the school program is to be made active and modern.

In many situations, especially in some rural areas, the conditions of the social structure favor development of lay leadership.

In these and in some city areas the problem of the ineffectiveness of lay leadership may not be acute. However, at the present time and in many areas, especially in the larger cities, the present school organization does not seem conducive to development of lay leadership and participation in curriculum improvement.

With marked increase in population, concentration of large masses of people in urban areas, and the rise of complex institutions in our society, the collective will of the people does not find easy expression. So far as public schools are concerned the main problem is: How can lay leadership be developed and fostered under these unfavorable conditions? Unless this question can be answered satisfactorily, the programs of the public schools in many localities may suffer as a result of attitudes of resigned acceptance and cynicism on the part of lay groups. Comments by parents and other adults frequently reflect either shallow or cynical thinking about the curricular offerings of the school. The entire picture may represent a growing danger to a democratic society proud of its schools.

Obviously, the solution to such a problem requires organized lay and professional effort and support in behalf of a school program which will promote the best education of youth in a democracy. But in most instances, this effort will not be aroused merely by the statement that such effort is needed. Nor will the know-how required to bring about such an effort mean that this effort will be continued indefinitely. The following examples and illustrations indicate some of the kinds of effort which may be needed and also some of the means which have been used successfully in carrying out such organized efforts.

A County Attains an Elected School Board

In some instances, criticisms of the school have been so acute that spontaneous positive actions have been developed by lay groups in order to eliminate points of criticism. For example, in the spring of 1946 a Citizens' Committee for School Improvement was developed in Arlington, Virginia, an urban community of 124,000 people. The purpose of this committee was to eliminate the anachronistic, overcrowded and inadequate program of education for the children and youth of the community.

Parents and other civic-minded citizens, with the aid of educational advisors from the Office of Education and the National Education Association, immediately proceeded to do something

about the situation. A popularly elected school board whose interests would lie closely in the community seemed to represent a satisfactory solution. Since Virginia at the time had no elected school boards, the following account holds all the more significance for other public school situations.

Since Arlington's school board was still appointed by a roundabout process placing ultimate control outside the county, the Citizen's Committee, assisted by other civic organizations, spearheaded a drive for enactment of enabling legislation at the state capital providing for election of the school board, subject to referendum. The Committee's leaders studied the school laws and, armed with a citizen's petition, made a visit to Richmond in January, 1947. As a result, the county's delegation in the legislature introduced the bill and successfully piloted it through. . . .

The Citizens' Committee, now growing rapidly in prestige and numbers, began working with several other civic and educational organizations on a convention to nominate candidates for the new board coming up for election in November. . . . Following a whirlwind campaign, probably unprecedented in school board annals, in which the candidates spoke at scores of civic meetings and in which 400 canvassers called on nearly all the voters in the community to acquaint them with the convention nominees and their school improvement platform, the nominees were elected in November 1947, with an average vote of two to one over the opposition. Three were elected for four-year terms and two for two years. The amount of energy contributed by enthusiastic, able citizens toward this campaign (research, literature, canvassing and advertising) without thought of personal gain forms a significant chapter in the history of local democratic action. . . .

Within its first seven months in office the board, besides revising its budget, has appointed a consultant who is working primarily on a building program; conducted a school census; appointed citizen advisory committees for each school; held board meetings in a place convenient for citizen participants; started on comprehensive building renovations; made key changes in staff; arranged for a sale of bonds; revised the promotional system; corrected teacher salary inequities and established paid sick leave; developed more teacher participation in school policy decisions; and made many other changes which parents had been urging for a decade. Arlington's schools are finally catching up with the community.⁷

The Arlington, Virginia, example is not typical of how lay leadership ordinarily develops. It is rather an example of how

⁷ Stahl, O. Glenn. "The Listening Post." *Educational Leadership*, October 1948.

lay leadership evolved spontaneously because of dissatisfaction with the existing board of control. The example illustrates a situation in which a community had become so aroused that spontaneous and intelligent guidance could lead the way to worth-while reforms. Such spontaneity of action is sometimes aroused by educational situations that have for long periods of time run counter to the interests of the people. The question may be raised: Is it necessary in such situations to wait for spontaneous action, or can other possible means be found for initiating movements which will strengthen communication lines between the community and the school as to its policies and programs?

School News Letter Keeps Community Informed

Lay leadership can be developed in the course of strengthening communication lines between the school and the community. In such an instance intelligent guidance may help to lead the way. Since 1947 the citizens of Winnetka, Illinois, have received copies of school board news letters which are called *The School Board Reports*. These letters from the board of education contain information of importance to Winnetka citizens. Such informative letters well exemplify the role which the board of education has assumed in preparing publications for citizens which tell about educational developments within the community. The materials are prepared by the board members. Each publication is carefully reviewed in special editorial meetings of the entire board. An excerpt from the first copy of these reports illustrates the regard that the board has for community understanding of school issues.⁸

With these letters we hope to enlist a wider public understanding of the task our schools must perform. We expect to share with you some of the problems which confront the School Board, and the factors underlying our decisions. We shall aim to make the reports timely and brief, thus keeping you informed on all phases of your public school program—its aims, its methods, its curriculum, its physical plant, and its finances. We welcome your suggestions for topics and questions to be discussed in later issues.

The reports contain timely accounts of the curriculum revisions of the school, enrollment trends, reporting to parents, guidance programs, instrumental music programs, the typical Win-

⁸ Winnetka Board of Education. *The School Board Reports*. Volume 1, Number 1. Winnetka, Illinois: the Board, November 1947.

netka teacher, teaching beginners to read, the child's health, classroom discipline, and costs of school operation. In each report is reflected an eagerness to keep citizens well informed and to develop intelligent and active lay leadership in making the school and its curriculum reflect the best thinking of our democratic society.

Program for Cooperative Educational Planning

Glencoe, Illinois, also has a school-community relationship which recognizes the responsibility of planning for the education of youth. In an article, "Community Responsibility in Educational Planning," John Sternig, assistant superintendent of the Glencoe Schools, states: "Every agency dealing with children must consciously strive for cooperative unified effort."⁹ The following are features of the Glencoe community program which represent attempts to meet this need of cooperative effort in educational planning.

The meaning and use of education is constantly before us as we work with children.

Our contacts with parents continuously stress the social aspects of education.

Our local adult groups—Rotary Club, Library Club, Women's Club, Garden Club, and the like have teacher members and strive for common social goals.

Our League of Women Voters meets in the schools. Our older students participate in these meetings to consider the problems of the day and matters in which voters can determine final results.

Our schools cooperate closely with all youth agencies.

Close contact with our religious leaders is maintained not on any sectarian basis, but to assure common understanding and mutual effort in educating for character.

Our community has encouraged a unified and democratic approach to all intercultural and intergroup matters. As a result, significant progress is being made in the improvement of understanding and cooperation in this important area of human relations. We have had a community coordinating council which serves as an excellent clearing house and discussion center on all matters involving the community.

Our schools provide a youth center, developed by the children, which enables them to have parties, dances and other social affairs under adequate supervision, yet planned and carried out entirely under their own direction.

⁹ Sternig, John. "Community Responsibility in Educational Planning." *Education Outlook* 24:48-49; November 1949.

State Groups Study School Materials

State and national organizations similar to the local organizations also have shown interest in the curriculum of the schools and have received assistance from educational workers in developing lay leadership. Unanimous adoption of the report made by a committee of the American Legion, Department of Michigan, on the "Evaluation of Instructional Materials" at the Legion convention in Michigan in 1949 is one such example.¹⁰ The purpose of the report was "to foster a positive attitude toward democratic ideals and principles in all educational institutions and activities."

Criteria for evaluation of the loyalty factor, as this factor is expressed in instructional materials, show genuine concern on the part of the committee for the curriculum materials of the schools of Michigan as well as a realization of the democratic social heritage that the schools should foster.

Materials of instruction dealing with social, cultural and governmental issues are constructive, friendly to democracy, and non-subversive when:

In the study of democracy both its accomplishments and its failures are examined.

In the treatment of the individual's relationship to government his obligations are stressed as well as his rights.

The materials help students to develop their own methods of propaganda analysis to be applied to all situations.

In dealing with controversial issues both sides of the issue are fairly presented.

The American Legion of the State of Wisconsin, wishing to take positive leadership in fostering democratic ideals in the social studies classes of their state, asked the State Department of Public Instruction for suggestions. This cooperative effort has led to work on the construction of a resource unit about democracy which will be distributed to all social studies teachers in Wisconsin. In this instance, money for the project and the idea came from the American Legion of the state, and the actual resource unit will be a product of a committee of people in education under the direction of the State Department of Public Instruction.

¹⁰ Committee of the American Legion, Department of Michigan, "Evaluation of Instructional Materials." *Michigan Education Journal* 27:218-20; November 1949.

Lay Groups Work at Curriculum Improvement

Parent study groups, community councils, citizens' committees, and the like are other examples of lay groups which are actively engaged in providing lay leadership for curriculum improvement. The Kalamazoo, Michigan, Curriculum Council is developing lay leadership on a community level.¹¹

Students and citizens help teachers decide what to teach in the public schools of Kalamazoo, Michigan. With democratic curriculum building as its goal, the Kalamazoo Curriculum Council has a membership of approximately sixty, made up of teachers, students, members of PTA organizations and representatives from the Chamber of Commerce and from the ranks of labor.

This curriculum council has outlined for itself the following objectives:

- Discuss major needs of curriculum improvements.
- Attack those needs through committee investigation.
- Make recommendations to the superintendent of schools.
- Maintain lines of communication.
- Encourage curriculum experimentation.
- Promote teacher visitations.
- Develop plans for in-service training of teachers.

Encouraging Lay Leadership

Many of us have received help from the accounts of the synthetic communities, a metropolitan city and a farm community, described in the NEA-AASA Educational Policies Commission's Report of 1944 titled, *Education for All American Youth*. In this report we find that the community councils of American City and Farmville have served exceedingly useful purposes and have gradually encouraged more and more lay leadership in matters pertaining to education. Will French examined the synthetic communities after five years of hypothetical operation and reported.¹²

In the five years since Farmville and American City instituted their new programs of education, school executives and interested laymen have watched to see how they would work. . . .

The five-year period has been one of watchful interest on the part

¹¹ The Nation's Schools. "Citizens and Students Help Plan Curriculum." *The Nation's Schools* 42:48; July 1948. p. 48.

¹² French, Will. "Five Years After," *NEA Journal* 38:516-17; October 1949.

of other school communities. It has also been one in which many of the communities began adapting the administrative techniques and educational programs of American City and Farmville to their particular needs.

The older practice of inviting large local lay participation only on special occasions of great need, such as during school-bond campaigns, began to give way in favor of regularly constituted channels of lay participation kept open for continuous use. Some high-school principals developed parents' councils, which met regularly to study school problems and to suggest and approve solutions. . . .

Quite understandably, in view of the increased popularity of lay participation, popularity of the community high-school idea increased. School executives and boards in American City and Farmville kept their eyes on the local scene for indications of the high school's effectiveness. They worried less about what accrediting agencies and colleges thought about their high schools and more about whether they were doing anything for their people.

A Community Faces Its Problems

A most interesting example of how lay leadership is developed in curriculum improvement may be found in the small rural town of Pulaski in northeastern Wisconsin. The town's population is about eleven hundred and the town is a trade center for the dairy and diversified farms that surround the community.

The youth of Pulaski, as the youth of most small rural towns, were moving to larger cities where work and recreational opportunities were more plentiful. The Pulaski area could not continue to prosper and grow as long as these conditions existed. Furthermore, the values of life in small communities were not being developed. However, in this town something has been done to meet this problem, and the doing has involved lay groups as well as the curricular offerings of the high school in Pulaski. Frank X. Joswick, the principal of Pulaski High School, can best complete the story.¹³

The only newspaper in the village is the *Pulaski News*, which has been issued and edited by the senior journalism students since 1942. This newspaper was used to disseminate information and present the facts regarding the situation to the people of the area. . . .

After some publicity, many speeches and various democratic discussions among the farmers, church leaders, school people, businessmen and laborers, the planning committee was authorized to invite

¹³ Joswick, Frank X. "They Wanted to Work in Their Hometown," *NEA Journal* 38:660-61; December 1949.

new industries to organize a corporation called Pulaski Industries, the chief aim of which was to help agriculture, business and labor of the community. . . .

Today, the village boasts one of the largest farm cooperatives in Wisconsin and the largest hardware and farm supply store in twelve counties. The community airport, a movie theater, a new furniture store and other businesses have been opened. Funds for a new gym were voted at the last annual school meeting. The high school has added new agriculture and home economics departments, as well as new shop facilities (built by the high school boys).

It is impossible to measure the full amount of Pulaski's growth. It is equally impossible to attribute that growth to any one factor. Although the high school with its classes, discussions, group surveys and newspaper did much to stimulate consideration of the problem, teamwork was the keynote of the new hometown spirit. The school, the chamber of commerce, the village board, farm organizations, church leaders, students and farmers all displayed an unusual interest once they became fully aware of the exodus of youth and the consequent economic, social and moral loss.

Changing from Passive to Active Participation

Finally, whether the community be Pulaski, Wisconsin or Winnetka, Illinois or American City, U.S.A., the importance of lay leadership in curriculum improvement must be emphasized and re-emphasized in order that school policy making by boards of education may be based on intelligent understanding of the needs of society. Tradition in America has left policy making largely up to the local boards of education. In many instances, especially in our larger cities, if lay participation is at all evident in such policy making it often would seem to be of a passive, resigned and cynical nature.

Taking advantage of such public attitudes of aloofness, pressure groups have sometimes found a fertile field for operation within this complex social structure. In some instances, influences that such groups have brought to bear upon local boards of education have apparently had little in common with the best interests of the people. These pressure groups have repeatedly taken advantage of public indifference and have used this advantage to foster their own pet schemes and private interests in the schools.

As a result of this situation, the task of the teacher and administrator should be (a) to overcome these resigned and cynical attitudes that are prevalent in our society, (b) to develop

lay leadership, (c) to respond with enthusiasm to lay leadership and lay participation when it is offered and (d) to reorient their own curricular thinking so that their classes and schools can benefit effectively through the positive leadership shown by lay groups.

Some representative ideas for development of lay leadership have been indicated. If ideas similar to these are used, teachers and administrators must be alert and receptive to the positive values in any of the plans that develop in this manner. Such receptiveness should lead to consideration and possible trial of these plans, since the actual operation of the proposed plans will test their worth-whileness and usefulness. Lay leadership can contribute plans and ideas. The school itself must respond to such efforts through fair recognition and consideration if lay leadership is to achieve significant results for its expenditure of time and effort.



This chapter points out that an important purpose of curriculum improvement programs is the development of leadership by pupils, teachers, administrators, supervisors and lay citizens. Important guiding principles from this section may be stated.

1. Leadership belongs to all in a democratic group. It is not a prerogative of status or of tenure. Every person is a potential leader depending upon the situation, the ability he possesses and the merit of his contribution. Every person's contribution has value.
2. The collective intelligence of the group, utilizing the method of consensus, is a better guide for action than the judgment of any one individual. There need be no conflict between the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the group.
3. Leader-follower roles may interchange as the group moves toward solution of problems and the resolving of conflicts.
4. Opportunities for development of pupil leadership grow out of every aspect of the school program.
5. Curriculum improvement takes place as teachers become vitally and actively concerned about making available improved experiences for learners.
6. Teaching, as well as administration and supervision, is a specialized service involving important competencies and abilities. Teachers should have opportunities to exercise, and to be recog-

nized for, their leadership competencies. This demands a new design for school staff organization.

7. The teaching staff should be selected to include:
 - a. Qualified teachers for each self-contained classroom or departmental assignment.
 - b. One or more teachers for each building, with leadership ability in guidance and counseling, creative expression, audio-visual materials, adult education, youth organizations, etc.
 - c. Opportunity for each teacher to develop and use particular leadership abilities.
8. Participation in curriculum improvement activities provides opportunities for teachers to exert leadership and to develop leadership competencies.
9. Selection by the group of its representatives and its leaders is essential in democratic curriculum organization.
10. Improvement of the curriculum usually depends on the quality of administrative and supervisory leadership in the situation.
11. The relationship of the state department of education with local schools should be one of service and assistance.
12. Faculty members of colleges and universities should render field services to schools and school systems in connection with curriculum improvement programs. Such relationships are mutually beneficial.
13. Supervisors today should serve as resource persons, service agents and consultants to individuals and faculty groups.
14. Status leaders often can make their greatest contribution by serving as consultants and guides. They should help provide the educational leadership and the climate which will be conducive to personal growth and curriculum improvement.
15. The key to development of lay leadership is increased lay participation in school affairs.
16. Parent study groups, community councils, citizens' committees and parent-teacher associations can provide lay leadership for curriculum improvement.
17. The school faculty should take the initiative to enlist, develop and use lay leadership in the school program.

CHAPTER VI

Evaluating Improvement Programs

EVALUATION of the curriculum improvement program may be accomplished through several processes designed to determine how well the program's objectives are being achieved. These processes include gathering, recording, interpreting and using evidences of the degree to which changes have been brought about in the behavior of individuals or groups.

Evidences of change are secured and interpreted through use of many appropriate instruments and procedures. A primary purpose of evaluation is to increase the effectiveness of the curriculum improvement program. To achieve this purpose, evaluation must be an integral and continuous part of such a program.

Need for Evaluation

Records of past and present efforts to evaluate curriculum improvement programs are fragmentary. These efforts have depended mainly upon the assembling of testimonial evidence. Although the literature of the past several years includes descriptions of a wide variety of techniques used in curriculum improvement programs, very little has been reported concerning the evaluation of these projects.

Evaluation techniques suitable to these programs apparently have not as yet been developed extensively. Nor have findings been available which would indicate with some degree of accuracy the effectiveness of the various procedures which have been utilized. Indeed, the time is long overdue for curriculum workers to devote effort to development of sound techniques of evaluation, and to collection of reliable data as a basis for planning curriculum improvement programs. This chapter presents guiding principles, a basis for planning, descriptions of specific pro-

grams and some of the problems in the controversial area of "how to evaluate curriculum improvement programs."

Guiding Principles in Evaluation

Some principles which should guide in the evaluation of curriculum improvement may be suggested:

Evaluation should be planned and carried out in terms of the specific purposes of the curriculum improvement program.

Evaluation activities should be an integral and continuous part of the program.

Purposes of evaluation should be defined in terms of desired changes in behavior.

Decisions concerning evaluative procedures and purposes to be achieved should be arrived at through consensus by all personnel affected by the program. Significant relationships exist between the success of efforts to obtain evaluative data and a feeling of security on the part of individuals involved.

Purposes should be flexible; they should be subject to review, restatement, and redirection whenever necessary in evaluation activities.

Evaluation should be based upon abundant descriptive evidence obtained in a variety of ways. Changes sought are intricate in nature; they cannot be described or measured by a single device or procedure.

Any procedure which provides reliable evidence regarding a change is appropriate. Evaluation procedures should not be limited to the use of pencil and paper instruments.

The essential nature of evaluation is found in the application of value judgments to factual data. Measuring and counting are not sufficient.

The means used to achieve purposes of the curriculum improvement program are of equal importance with the ends sought. Evaluation is concerned with both means and ends. A significant purpose of evaluation activities is the achievement of self-evaluation. Evaluation plans should be made and carried out so as to increase the effective use of self-evaluation.

A Basis for Planning

To determine the effectiveness of a curriculum improvement program, valid data must be obtained regarding changes taking

place during the course of the program. Planning in any particular situation may well be guided by the development of answers to these questions:

What behavior changes is the improvement program designed to achieve?

What evidence can be obtained regarding these changes?

When and how should evidence of these changes be secured?

How is evidence of change to be recorded and interpreted?

How are the findings to be used?

There are no pat answers to the questions stated above that are applicable to all schools or to all school systems. In fact, development of answers to these questions must be a function of planning in each school, school system, or other operational unit.

In one city school system, decisions were made recently concerning changes to be sought by a cooperative improvement program involving a total school faculty and the central office staff. Decisions made in this system are illustrative of a program designed to bring about changes in professional staff, in teaching-learning situations, in pupil behavior, in the community, in school organizations, in materials and in ways of working together. Changes of these types were discussed in Chapter III.

If the evidences assembled are to reveal behavior change, descriptive data must be accumulated *before, during* and *after* the curriculum improvement program. Evaluation efforts too frequently have been of the *ex post facto* variety. Without base-line data and materials collected continuously during the course of an improvement program, changes in behavior that have or have not resulted cannot accurately be determined.

Specific Efforts To Evaluate

Evaluation of curriculum improvement programs in terms of the viewpoint expressed in this chapter poses many problems. Ways in which various school systems are actually facing these problems of application, however, suggest meaningful clues to techniques and procedures. Consequently, a number of specific efforts to evaluate are presented. The examples which are described have been secured as a result of a direct inquiry sent to one hundred individuals in selected school systems throughout the United States.

Schools Improve Community Living

An attempt to improve community living through changing the school program has been carried on since 1939 by the three state universities of Kentucky, Vermont and Florida.¹ This experiment has been financed through a grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.

The Sloan Experiment has attempted to determine the extent to which improvement of instructional materials dealing with food, clothing and shelter can improve community living. Accordingly, several projects concerned with development of instructional materials based on community needs have been undertaken.

As a part of the Sloan Experiment, the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky in 1944 assumed responsibility for a project focused on in-service education. Before this time the experiment had placed little emphasis on in-service education as a means of developing a balanced school program. This project centered about a study of three basic community requirements—food, clothing and housing. Four schools were selected to participate in the program—two twelve-grade consolidated schools in farming areas, a six-grade city school in a low-income section, and a one-room rural school. Instructional materials developed to meet community needs as part of previous experiments were made available to the cooperating schools. An in-service program of extensive supervision in effective use of the materials also was inaugurated.

The evaluative study of the supervisory program in this project attempted "(a) to determine what changes have been effected in the program of the schools cooperating through emphasis upon food, clothing and shelter in the curriculum; and (b) to determine what supervisory activities have been effective in bringing about these changes."² Techniques used to gather data concerning changes included a teacher's questionnaire, a pupil's questionnaire, supervisor's records and anecdotal records.

The teacher's questionnaire was designed to secure data on: (a) degree of cooperation between individuals in the school, be-

¹ Materials supplied by Maurice Seay, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

² Wesley, W. C. *Supervision of School Programs for Better Living*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. 19, No. 4. Lexington: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1947.

tween groups within the school, and between school and community; (b) descriptions of definite changes in the use of food, clothing and shelter by children in the school or by persons in the community; (c) judgments as to the value of the supervisory activities employed and of improvements brought about in teaching (teachers had been asked to indicate the five most helpful and five least helpful supervisory activities; the ten improvements toward which supervision had contributed most and the ten toward which it had contributed least; (d) uses of instructional materials, i.e., whether teachers had used the materials before the program began, whether they had used the materials after the program began, and whether they had increased their use of the materials as a result of the program.

The pupil's questionnaire was designed to determine the extent of pupil participation in activities directed toward improvement of practices having to do with food, clothing and shelter and to ascertain the reactions of pupils toward these activities. In addition to these two extensive questionnaires, the supervisor's daily records and anecdotal materials were analyzed.

In reporting the evaluation of the in-service program, Wesley concludes: "No single supervisory activity or group of activities seems to be consistently superior to all others. The value of each depends on the personalities involved, the purposes to be achieved, and the conditions existing at the time. The activity that is best at one time and under certain conditions may be of little value at another time and under different conditions."³

The Sloan Experiment was evaluated in terms of changes brought about in the schools and the communities. Findings indicated that changes had been effected in the degree of cooperation between individuals within the school, between groups within the school, and between the school and the community. A higher degree of cooperation was evidenced all along the line—in the amount of assistance given by a class or a group to another class or group, in the assistance given by teachers to other teachers, and in the assistance given by citizens and by community agencies. A majority of the pupils participated in the new activities dealing with food, clothing and shelter, and a large percentage of these indicated that they profited by the participation.

³ Wesley, W. C., *op. cit.*, p. 60.

Four Alabama Counties Examine In-Service Experiences

Four Alabama counties made an extensive study, in cooperation with the State Department of Education, of trends and tendencies in in-service education in their schools. Beginning in 1947, groups of teachers, supervisors and administrators spent over a year in a cooperative effort "to determine, record and analyze some of the aspects of the organization, administration and related outcomes of in-service education in four county school systems, and to develop some practical suggestions that may be made available to those concerned with, and having the responsibility for, initiation and continuous promotion of programs of in-service education in Alabama."⁴

One aspect of this comprehensive study of in-service practices was devoted to an assessment of the in-service program in each county. A steering committee of representatives from each of the counties and from the state department developed the following guide for gathering evidence to determine whether the in-service program had improved educational practices in the county.

Have school enrollment and attendance increased?

Has the holding power of the schools increased?

Have any changes taken place in promotion practices?

Have any changes taken place in the physical environment of the schools?

Has any attention been given to better living with reference to nutritional practices?

Has provision been made for flexibility in the daily schedule?

Have efforts been made to give lay citizens a better understanding of the educational program?

Are there changes within the community that may be attributable to the influence of the schools?

Using these criteria as guides, the committee in each county sought to gather evidence of the extent of change resulting from the in-service program. Sources of data were annual supervisory reports; mimeographed programs, guide sheets, letters, bulletins; local school newspaper files; minutes of official in-service com-

⁴ State of Alabama, Department of Education. *The Administration and Organization of Education In-Service in Alabama with Emphasis on Four School Systems*, Bulletin No. 5. Montgomery: Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, 1948. p. 24.

mittee meetings; minutes of meetings of county boards of education; interviews with teachers, pupils and members of the community; conferences with present and previous consultants and supervisors; correspondence with present and former teachers; interviews with representative members of non-school agencies; mimeographed and printed reports of local groups; files in principals' offices; mimeographed materials in the hands of teachers.

For the most part, this evaluative effort was carried on after the program had been concluded. It is significant to note, however, that as a result of the evaluation, the committees in the counties agreed that future "evaluation of in-service programs, carried on in terms of accepted objectives, should encourage group participation in the evaluative process and not only should be concerned with previous work, but also should be forward looking and useful in modifying direction and in determining future steps."⁵

California Organizes for Improvement

For many years educators have relied upon administrative appointment and, more recently, voluntary participation as the means of structuring faculty committees. Such methods tend to neglect some underlying interpersonal relations which form a network of attractions and repulsions beneath the surface of any social group. Recent explorations by sociometric techniques have been made of the patterns of human relations which exist in social groups—both child and adult. These studies seem to indicate that group morale and group productivity are higher in those groups which have been structured in terms of spontaneous choices of work partners. In the light of these findings, it would seem worth while to explore the sociometric structuring of faculty committees in an effort to improve group morale and productivity. Such an effort to evaluate the relative effectiveness of two ways of structuring faculty committees has been one phase of an investigation of the human relationships of school faculties carried out by the California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education.⁶

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 302.

⁶ Materials supplied by William P. Golden, Jr., Research Associate, California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education.

Improvement Through Faculty Committee Work

In a number of cooperating schools, concern had been expressed about faculty committee work as a means of school improvement. Interviews with teachers revealed the conviction on their part that administrative appointment and voluntary participation are not the most effective ways of organizing committees. It was suggested that faculty members in these schools be encouraged to express spontaneous choices as to committee membership and leadership whenever faculty committees are organized.

In one junior high school, a faculty committee was organized on the basis of sociometric choices so that the group consisted of members who had indicated that they would like to work together. A "control" committee was set up in another junior high school. Members of this committee were appointed by the principal. Although information on sociometric choices was available, this was not considered in making the appointments.

In order to study these two contrasting methods of structuring committees, an experienced observer visited both groups to obtain data on interpersonal relationships and group processes. Members of each committee knew that the purpose of the observation was to gather information on their ways of working as a group. As a partial check on the reliability of observations, recordings were made of the committee meetings. Data-gathering techniques included recording of "interaction process analysis" on an observation guide, charts showing patterns of participation, end-of-the-meeting reaction sheets, and disc recordings of the meetings. The primary source of data was the "interaction process analysis," a method for categorizing group behavior developed by R. F. Bales.⁷ This observation form makes provision for gathering the following data: (a) who speaks; (b) to whom a person speaks, whether to an individual or to the whole group; (c) the type of interaction. Each contribution of a committee member is scored in one of thirteen categories of interaction. These categories can be classified in three broad combinations which represent different modes of interaction:

Social-Emotional Area: Positive. Behavior or a remark which

⁷ Bales, R. F. *Interaction Process Analysis*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1950.

has a positive, friendly emotional meaning, such as the categories "encourages," "praises," "laughs," "agrees."

Social-Emotional Area: Negative. Behavior or a remark which has a negative, hostile emotional meaning, such as the categories "disagrees," "rejects," "shows tension," "deflates other's status."

Task Area: Neutral. Behavior or a remark which is impersonal and job-centered, such as the categories "gives opinion," "asks orientation," "asks suggestion."

Analysis of the data revealed significant differences in committee processes. Differences were noted in:

Kinds of Participation—in the sociometric committee there was a higher degree of positive emotional identification and work-centeredness than in the appointed committee.

Amount of Leadership Activity—the amount of leader activity for the sociometric group was about 20 percent less than in the appointed group.

Membership Participation—there was more member participation in the sociometric group.

Direction of Interactions—more remarks were directed toward the leader and fewer remarks were directed toward the other members or the group as a whole in the appointed committee than in the sociometric group.

Preliminary findings of this study seem to indicate that the use of sociometric techniques might have possibilities for improving committee organization. Furthermore, sociograms constructed on the basis of spontaneous choices can furnish data for comparison with choice structure at some later time to evaluate changes which have occurred in interpersonal relationships in a faculty group as an outcome of curriculum improvement programs.

Teachers Change Their Ways of Working

In one city school system participating as a member of the California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education, a group of secondary school teachers expressed interest in modifying their instructional methods and procedures to make more adequate provision for individual differences in their classrooms.⁸

⁸ Materials supplied by Clement Long, Director of Secondary Education, Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California.

Some fifteen teachers representing junior and senior high-school levels, nearly all academic subject fields, and a wide range in age and teaching experience, were involved in this study during the spring semester of 1949. At the suggestion of a supervisor, the group decided, as part of its project, to gather data on (a) factors involved in an attempt to change instructional methods; and (b) the value of procedures used in this program of in-service education.

A basic part of this in-service venture was a series of five group meetings held after school hours. One of these was held at the beginning of the semester and four were held during the time when the teachers were attempting to use grouping methods of instruction. The supervisor, serving as coordinator of the project, acted as chairman of these meetings. The teachers exchanged ideas and experiences, helped one another whenever possible, and discussed difficulties they encountered in changing their methods of instruction.

At the outset the teachers agreed that some assessment should be made concerning their points of view on instructional methods. As a point of departure, each teacher at the first group meeting completed an opinionnaire dealing with cooperative classroom procedures which had been developed by a staff member of the California Cooperative Study of In-service Education.⁹ The opinionnaire furnished data which showed rather clearly at the start of the study where the teachers were in their thinking concerning democratic classroom processes. The same instrument was used at the end of the semester so as to ascertain any changes in teachers' viewpoints resulting from the study.

Tape recordings were made of each group meeting. These recordings supplied each participant and his principal with a complete and accurate set of notes on what had happened at the meeting. The recordings were particularly valuable in that they furnished clues as to kinds of assistance the teachers needed. Also, they revealed changes in teachers' values, concerns and problems which arose as the semester progressed. In many respects the recordings became a record of group and individual growth.

After every group meeting the supervisor conferred with each teacher individually in an attempt to help with specific class-

⁹ William P. Golden, Jr., Research Associate, California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education.

room problems. Every effort was made by the supervisor to help the teachers develop a sense of security, and at the same time, to help them change basically their ways of working with boys and girls in the classroom.

Evaluative data were thus gathered before, during and after the study. The opinionnaire at the outset gave some indication of how the teachers felt about various issues before the project began. During the study the tape recordings and interviews constituted an excellent source of data about the problems teachers found of greatest concern; changes in perception of difficulties; kinds of assistance teachers requested; whether they did or did not receive this aid; what teachers did to help themselves; and descriptions of what specific changes were being made in the classes as the semester progressed.

In a sense, the tape recordings contained both "before" and "after" data, since in the early group meetings the teachers spent considerable time discussing what they thought their difficulties would be, while the last meeting was devoted to consideration of what their difficulties were at the end of the semester.

After the semester's study, a final interview was held with each teacher in an attempt to secure individual reactions to many aspects of the project—procedures followed, content and actual changes that took place in the classroom. The opinionnaire given at the beginning was repeated and the results seemed to indicate that rather definite changes in points of view had taken place. Also, the teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which group meetings, written summaries of such meetings sent to participants and principals, individual conferences, actual use of grouping methods with participants' classes, bibliographical material, services of professional librarians, use of resource people, observations, class logs, etc., helped them in moving toward new instructional methods. The teachers wrote, as a final evaluative effort, informal comments mentioning (a) some practices they are now following in their classes that they had not used before; (b) some practices they are now following to a lesser extent than formerly; and (c) some practices they are no longer following.

A High School Organizes To Improve Itself

In a large metropolitan high school which is a member of the California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education, an extensive movement to further democratic participation in the school

program is under way. This cooperative, over-all school improvement program will attempt to gather data which will tend either to prove or to disprove the hypothesis that a democratically planned program for dealing with school problems will lead to changes in pupil behavior, in ways of working, in organization, in materials, in professional personnel, in the teaching-learning situation, and in the community.

Since by nature the program is a long-range and constantly emerging project rather than an overnight revolution, there are opportunities to give particular emphasis to evaluation. The school faculty has been involved from the beginning in the planning and has agreed that evaluation should be an integral part of the program. Effort has been concentrated upon securing "base-line data." In other words, the staff is anxious to determine the actual status of the total school program in its numerous aspects at the outset of the study. Plans have been made to collect data on (a) curricular offerings, (b) the extra-curricular program, (c) evaluation techniques used at present, (d) pupil personnel, (e) student characteristics and abilities, (f) teacher personnel, and (g) administration.

While plans for gathering base-line data are too extensive to describe in detail, a few illustrations of the types of data being assembled will indicate the broad scope of this over-all appraisal:

Define the objectives of the total program as it exists at present.

Determine the extent to which pupils participate in organizing the school program.

Study the extent to which pupils participate in extra-curricular activities.

Determine the bases on which grades or marks are assigned.

Survey the uses made of cumulative records and test results by teachers, counselors, students and others.

Analyze referrals of discipline problems.

Survey student opinion on teachers and subjects liked and disliked.

Survey student attitudes toward various social, economic and political issues.

Have the students evaluate school practices.

Survey teacher attitudes on (a) fundamental issues in education, (b) pupil behavior, and (c) ways of working together.

Describe opportunities available to students for making choices

and for participating in determination of school policies, organization and control.

During the period 1950-1952 the school improvement program will be centered around such action steps as: development of a program of instructional improvement planned around problems identified by students and teachers; gradual extension of pupil participation and responsibility in organization and control of the school; and systematic study of democratic ideals in the classroom.

At a future date, perhaps in 1953, after the changes have had a chance to effect results, follow-up data will be gathered in the areas described to assess the effects of increasing democratic participation in solving school problems. The very nature of this improvement program points to the need for cooperative effort in developing means of collecting, analyzing and interpreting evaluative data. Inasmuch as complete records will be made of all aspects of the program, this venture will attempt a complete case history of an effort to improve the educational program. Without the base-line data it would not be possible to assess the effects of any of the planned action-steps. Successes and failures met by teachers, pupils and school community in this endeavor will provide vital clues toward continued planning and evaluating.

Evaluating a Summer Workshop for Teachers

In the summer of 1950 the Oakland, California, public schools held their sixth annual workshop.¹⁰ In attendance were approximately two hundred elementary and secondary teachers who voluntarily enrolled to work on instructional problems of immediate concern to them. To assist these teachers in clarifying problems and in making action-decisions, a staff of twenty-two educators—supervisors, administrators and curriculum consultants—was provided.

Effectiveness of workshop experiences in Oakland had previously been taken on faith. This year, however, extensive plans were made to appraise the workshop and determine whether any significant changes took place in the behavior of the professional staff as a result of workshop participation.

In setting up objectives, the workshop planning committee

¹⁰ Materials supplied by Forrest C. Michel, Administrative Assistant, Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California.

tried to define the areas in which changes might be expected to result, as well as specific changes which seemed desirable. Three general goals were formulated for the workshop:

Participation in social experiences for becoming better acquainted and developing a feeling of belonging.

Communication and exchange of ideas concerning problems in all areas and at all levels as a means of increasing the competency of the professional staff.

Increased competency in utilization of classroom techniques, materials and practices.

Desirable changes were described in order to furnish a basis for securing evidence. The workshop experiences were directed toward certain areas of change and specific changes.

Changes in the teaching-learning situation as evidenced by:

Grouping and regrouping of children in terms of individual needs, abilities and interests.

Utilizing a more appropriate variety of materials and activities.

Increasing the extent to which pupils share in planning, executing and evaluating classroom and other activities.

Changes in pupil behavior as evidenced by:

Increased interest of pupils in day-to-day learning experiences.

Increased participation by pupils in all aspects of the teaching-learning situation.

Acceptance by pupils of increased responsibility for their own activities and progress.

Development of self-direction and self-evaluation.

Changes in ways of working together as evidenced by:

Improved human relationships within the school—in relations of administrator and teacher, of administrator and supervisor, of supervisor and teacher, of teacher and teacher, and of teacher and pupil.

Increased reliance on cooperative group problem-solving.

Increased awareness of the importance of values, attitudes, opinions and beliefs in working relationships.

Changes in the professional staff as evidenced by:

Increased security with which teachers explore and try out new ideas, practices, techniques and materials in their own teaching situations.

More extensive utilization of the various competencies, aptitudes and interests of all school personnel.

Increased use of democratic group processes in working on instructional problems and the broader problems of curriculum development.

Changes in the community as evidenced by:

Clarification and interpretation of the school program to parents and other adults.

Increased community use of school resources and facilities.

More effective cooperation between the school and other community agencies.

In order to secure evidence that change had, or had not, taken place, one member of the planning committee was responsible for developing detailed plans to evaluate the effect of workshop participation upon selected classroom practices.

Fifty teachers who had not previously attended an Oakland workshop were selected to participate in the major evaluation program. Extensive effort was made to secure "before, during and after" data as a means of appraising the effects of workshop participation. The evaluation design included:

Data Secured Before the Workshop

Expressions of problems on which enrollees wished to work were obtained from application blanks.

Personal interviews with each of the fifty teachers by workshop staff members, in an effort to secure data on their perceptions, their needs, their problems, what help they expected, and what they wanted to do at the workshop, were held shortly after enrollment.

Classroom observations were made after each teacher had been interviewed and rapport established. These observations were made by a team, usually composed of two workshop staff members and a principal or supervisor.

Data Secured During the Workshop

Daily logs were kept by the fifty teachers as records of what they did and how much time they spent on various activities. These logs were of two kinds: one dealt with activities of the teachers' *basic groups* which met daily, and one was a log of individual activities.

"Free-response" evaluation sheets which asked each teacher to express his reactions to the workshop and to suggest desired changes in the workshop procedures, were distributed when the workshop was half completed.

An evaluation questionnaire at the close of the workshop was designed to secure opinions and evaluations of the over-all workshop experience.

Data Secured After the Workshop

Follow-up interviews of each teacher were conducted by members of the workshop staff to discover any changes the teachers believed they made as a result of the workshop experience.

Follow-up classroom observations were made in an effort to identify changes in pupil behavior, in ways of working, in the teaching-learning situation and in teaching procedures. Conferences with principals and supervisors who are the teachers' co-workers were held in an effort to find out whether they had observed any changes in the areas being assessed.

On the basis of this design it was possible to secure objective evidence of the effectiveness of participation in workshops as a means of promoting professional growth.

A University Curriculum-Planning Workshop

Wayne University sponsored in 1948 a summer curriculum-planning program. This was a six-week workshop held at an off-campus center for elementary and secondary schools of southeastern Michigan. The workshop groups were composed of school teams. Tentative problems for study were determined by advance planning with local faculty groups. To develop desirable changes in teachers and administrators through the "school team" approach to curriculum planning was the aim of the summer workshop. Considerable effort was made to evaluate its effectiveness. Roland Faunce, a staff member of the workshop, stated that criteria used to evaluate effectiveness involved such questions as, "What desirable instructional changes were effected?" "What improvements took place in teacher-administrator, teacher-pupil and school-community relationships?" "What progress did the various groups make in respect to the actual problems which they undertook during this summer program?" "How much carry-over was there during the subsequent school year?" "What changes took place in individuals and groups?"¹¹

¹¹ Unpublished report by Roland Faunce on the summer workshops held in 1947-48 under sponsorship of Wayne University.

Data concerning changes in school programs were secured through a follow-up study which employed such techniques as interviews, observation, review of school records, conferences, school visits, weekly logs kept by school teams in their own teaching situations, questionnaires and group evaluation at reunions of school teams. Data on program change or lack of change were collected from the twenty schools represented in the workshop. As a result of this evaluation the schools were classified into three types: (a) schools in which the program changes projected by the faculty team proved successful; (b) schools in which the planned program changes proved successful in some respects, or in which all the planned program changes proved somewhat successful; and (c) schools in which no program changes were observable.

Evaluative data indicated that three conditions must prevail to insure success in program changes: (a) the school team should be representative of various points of view and positions in the school staff; (b) continuous communication should be maintained with the entire faculty and with community representatives; (c) there should be administrative leadership for cooperative planning, not line-and-staff assignments.

Changes in individuals and in group relationships effected by the workshop experience were assessed by data drawn from attendance records, number of books and materials used, staff judgments, progress reports, two evaluation sessions held at the workshop and judgments recorded during two follow-up reunions of workshop participants. Two general evaluation sessions, which occupied a half-day each at the end of the third and fifth weeks, provided much evaluative data on individual and group changes. The participants divided themselves into eight random groups, each charged with the responsibility of discussing two questions: (a) What have been the chief values of our work together? (b) How could this experience have been improved? Analysis of the data drawn from records of the group evaluations revealed significant changes in values and attitudes.

Improving Citizenship Education

The Detroit Citizenship Education Study,¹² carried on during the past five years in the Detroit public schools, is an example

¹² Materials supplied by Stanley Dimond, Director, Citizenship Education Study, Detroit, Michigan, Public Schools.

of a comprehensive school improvement program. The study followed the procedure of "demonstration and experimentation with new instructional methods and materials and with those methods and materials which in recent years have given most promise of increasing the interest, competence, integrity and participation of boys and girls in the activities of the good citizen." The program further called for an inventory of the school, home and community situation, followed by periodic inventories to show by comparison with the original appraisal any changes during the course of the study. Answers were sought to two questions:

"Have the boys and girls who participated in the study become more interested, more competent and more active citizens?"

"What materials, activities and techniques were most effective in bringing about the results?"

Since each school participating in the study was free to proceed as it desired, a variety of techniques and experiments were undertaken. However, preliminary reports published by the schools indicate that there was a pattern in the procedures utilized by nearly all the schools. Basically, all the schools were endeavoring to produce change in the professional staff, in teaching-learning situations, in pupil behavior, in organization, in ways of working together, in materials, and in the community; and to assess change or lack of change. Each school gathered some base-line data on "where it was" at the beginning of the study. Typical base-line data consisted of an inventory of values, beliefs and opinions concerning democracy and practices related to them.

One significant contribution of the study has been the development of an evaluation framework based on criteria for democratic living and the developmental characteristics and needs of boys and girls. Entitled *Democratic Citizenship and Development of Children*, the guide was worked out by a committee of staff members and teachers from the participating schools. This committee, after working together for many months, developed a list of essential criteria for democratic living.

The guide attempts to help teachers and pupils evaluate a school activity or a total school program in terms of democratic values and practices and the needs and characteristics of pupils participating in the activity or program.

The South Appraises Its High Schools

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Study placed considerable emphasis upon in-service education as a means of improving instructional programs in the thirty-three cooperating high schools. It was not an effort to apply the technique of "controlled experimentation" to the improvement of education as had been the case in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The Southern Study was somewhat similar to the Eight-Year Study, however, since in both instances agreements were reached with colleges of the region to admit the graduates of schools involved in the study. The nature of the study was such that "the basic activity of the enterprise was study and change," that is, "improvement," on the part of schools participating in the study.

In-service education was fostered in all participating schools. Four central summer conferences of six weeks' duration, a number of smaller conferences of shorter duration, and a series of workshops in cooperation with county school systems or with regional universities, were sponsored. In addition, some 1800 days of staff time were spent in the schools in working directly with teachers, pupils and administrators. The study attempted to identify effective procedures for bringing about region-wide improvements. As such, the study was concerned primarily with ways of working and with evaluation of cooperative group problem-solving as a method of initiating improvement.

Assistance given the cooperating schools was aimed at helping them develop a sound method of identifying and dealing with problems for study. Workshops, regional and local conferences, and study groups were examples of situations in which the school faculties or their representatives could deal with problems of concern to them. Likewise, staff work with individual teachers and groups of teachers was aimed at helping teaching personnel solve their problems cooperatively.

Evaluation an Integral Part of the Study

Evaluation was such an integral part of the Southern Study that it is difficult to examine it separately.¹³ Only a reading of the study report can give an adequate picture of outcomes of the workshops, conferences, study groups and other in-service educa-

¹³ Perry, H. Arnold. "The Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education." *The High School Journal* 32:104; May 1949.

tion activities evaluated. At the start of one of the summer workshops, for example, participants were asked: "What are you now doing, or what do you plan to do, to improve your school program?" Data gathered in reply to a question of this kind were compared with findings gathered on replies to the same question at the end of the workshop. Extensive records, such as group logs, minutes of meetings, diaries, summaries of plans and decisions, and group and individual evaluations, were kept on all the workshops, local and regional conferences, and study groups. Particularly helpful in evaluation of workshops and conferences were the records of decisions, for these were the next steps which the teachers planned to take in improving the instructional program. It was relatively simple, in visiting the schools, to see which decisions had resulted in change and which ones were merely forgotten.

Effectiveness of work with teachers was evaluated also by staff members. Complete diary-type records were kept of all staff visits to the schools.

Over-all effects of these attempts to help schools use a cooperative problem-solving method were evaluated through analysis of records of work done by the schools. Voluntary reporting by the schools, formal and informal writings by those engaged in the study, test results and anecdotal records of teaching-learning situations formed the basic data for evaluating outcomes in the schools. Descriptive data in the form of class logs, diaries, minutes of staff meetings, teacher reports and logs and reports by students furnished evidences of change also.

Working Toward Better Community Relations

Worthy of mention as an example of trends in evaluation is the 1946 Connecticut Workshop sponsored by the Connecticut Interracial Commission and the Research Center for Group Dynamics.¹⁴ This workshop was organized for the purpose of training community leaders in the human relations skills necessary for improving intergroup relations in their communities. Delegates to the workshop consisted of "community teams" and key individuals. As one phase of the workshop training program, the staff and the research team from the Research Center for Group Dynamics were interested in testing the hypothesis that

¹⁴ See Lippitt, R. *Training in Community Relations*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

training "community teams" is more effective in helping to improve community relations than training key individuals.

In order to test this hypothesis, an extensive evaluation program was undertaken. Interviewing teams were sent to each community represented at the workshop by a team or key individual. Each trainee was interviewed about his intergroup relations activities before the workshop. Data were gathered through interviews on such items as amount and type of community activity toward improving intergroup relations, amount of time spent in intergroup activities, intergroup problems and obstacles to their solution, sources of help on intergroup problems, and techniques needed in making progress in an intergroup program. Two of the trainee's co-workers, who did not attend the workshop, were interviewed also in an effort to obtain similar data.

The training process at the workshop also was evaluated. For this purpose, records were kept of both the "process" and the "content" of the workshop. In gathering these data, extensive use was made of group observers and recorders who were members of each discussion group at the workshop. These persons kept records of verbal participation—its amount and the nature of the interaction—and made descriptive anecdotal reports of leader activity in the discussion groups, analyzed wire recordings of meetings to make a "content analysis," and kept running records of meetings of work groups. Such record-keeping furnished quantitative and qualitative data on the nature of the learning situation. These data were used in an effort to discover what aspects of the complex training process were most relevant for stimulating change in participants.

Data collected after the workshop were derived from a follow-up interview some six months later. Once again, both participants at the workshop and their co-workers were interviewed. The second interview was similar to the first. On the basis of these specific efforts to gather data, the effects of the workshop were assessed. This project is an example of an effort to measure changes in behavior. The tools used and the techniques developed can readily be adapted for use in evaluating many aspects of curriculum improvement programs.

Problems in Evaluating Improvement Programs

It seems evident that we are only beginning to realize the need for evaluation of curriculum improvement programs. The survey of present efforts to evaluate improvement projects stands

as evidence that, with few exceptions, relatively little has been done to make evaluation an integral part of planning and executing programs designed to improve the curriculum.

Much resistance toward attempts to develop more effective evaluation programs has come from staff members who feel they are already overburdened with responsibilities. The effectiveness of evaluation in helping the staff members discharge their numerous responsibilities through increasing their success in problem-solving and through giving insight into the relative effectiveness of their own procedures can be realized only by making evaluation an integral and continuous part of all their activities.

Whether or not we are aware of it, some sort of evaluation is always going on. The plea is not for more evaluation, but for more effective evaluation. Reluctance to launch more intensive efforts at evaluation is often caused by feelings of insecurity, fear of finding out the actual results of our work, or weaknesses in our ways of working. In the final analysis, evaluation of our processes and results is a means of building security, rather than destroying it. To build this security we must face a number of complex problems.

Confusion of Value Judgments and Descriptive Data

Data-gathering is not a simple task. When collecting factual, objective, descriptive data, one has the responsibility of eliminating, insofar as possible, expressions of value judgments. It is a simpler job to collect factual data in the exact sciences than in the social sciences. Perhaps it is not possible to approach the objectivity with which the physical scientists gather data, but gathering factual, descriptive data first and then applying value judgments to the collected data will help us become more conscious of the way individual and group attitudes, biases, opinions and beliefs can color the collection of data.

The basis of any sound evaluation program is the collection of factual, descriptive data, and not just the expression of value judgments. Thus an observer interested in pupil-teacher planning may approach the gathering of data in at least two ways: He may observe the teaching-learning situation for fifteen minutes and jot down a note to the effect that the teacher-pupil planning was good or poor. He may gather specific data such as ratio of teacher participation to pupil participation; kinds of social interactions in the situation; pupil roles and

teacher roles in the planning process; and kinds of decision making, etc. In the first instance, the observer makes a value judgment without citing supporting factual data; in the second, he gathers factual data to which value judgments may be applied. It is only as we move toward the latter technique that we can, for example, rely on the observations of two different observers witnessing the same teaching-learning situation.

Eliminating value judgments from the collection of data will require a new orientation on the part of many teachers, supervisors, principals and curriculum workers. To be valid, evaluation must be based on factual data, and not on one's particular biases, opinions, attitudes or beliefs. Perhaps one can never succeed completely in eliminating the expression of value judgments during the gathering of factual evidence. However, if one is aware of the limitations of evidence, a more effective job of interpretation can be accomplished.

Scope of Data Gathered

How much data should be gathered? Two schools of thought exist concerning this question. One group would say that prior to the evaluation phases of the program the objectives about which data are to be gathered should be defined in terms of behavior, and that only data which will give evidence about progress toward the specific objectives should be gathered. In short, prior determination of purposes delineates the data to be secured.

The other school of thought agrees with this position, but goes beyond it to suggest that data-gathering should not be limited solely to that which a prior determination of purposes requires. Those who hold to this school of thought—and their number is growing steadily—feel that the first approach is incomplete and fragmentary because it is not always possible to determine ahead of time the data that will be needed to evaluate progress toward specific objectives. Further, it is essential that purposes evolve continuously. It is therefore necessary to gather data in a comprehensive way; it is better to have too much data than too little.

There is thus seen to be a trend toward getting as complete a record as possible. In some efforts to evaluate school improvement programs significant evaluative data are discovered in material gathered for the sake of completeness in collecting information. It is for this reason that such data-gathering devices as

diaries, logs, anecdotal records, wire recordings, group process observations and minutes of meetings are being widely used. Such techniques yield rather complete records and are proving invaluable because of their detail. Recent experience thus seems to justify gathering as much information as possible, even though at the time of collection some of it may seem not purposeful; for at a later date such data may be crucial in making a comprehensive evaluation. And unless data are gathered during the project, it is apt to be lost forever.

Inadequacy of Base-Line Data

Evaluation, if it is to be objective, must begin with an inventory of the present situation so that "we know where we are." Such an inventory may well be called base-line data because it constitutes a line from which to measure. Concerned as we are in education with assessing changes in behavior, it is crucial that we collect data describing the kind of behavior which an individual or group is manifesting before the introduction of techniques which it is hoped will produce changes. Change can be assessed only if we have a point of reference from which to begin evaluation. We cannot measure changes objectively if we do not know our status before the introduction of a program directed toward bringing about change. Unfortunately, many curriculum workers overlook this basic point in planning their programs.

In most evaluative efforts in current programs of curriculum improvement there appears to be a dearth of base-line data. Evaluation remains primarily an appraisal coming at the end of an activity, project or study. Consequently evaluation is limited and in reality gives little idea as to what changes can be attributed to a school improvement program. To evaluate a committee, workshop, institute, study group or conference solely by means of reaction sheets or some similar inventory used at the end of the particular activity gives only partial data. An effective job of gathering base-line data requires a more comprehensive attack. New instruments and techniques need to be developed; old instruments and techniques will have to be adapted. Evaluation, to be effective, must be an integral part of any process; it cannot succeed when it is tacked on at the end of a project; it must begin with the very first planning of any undertaking, if participants in the undertaking are to have an opportunity to secure data on "what was" so as to evaluate "what is."

Readiness for Participation

To gather base-line and other evaluative data is a nearly impossible task when there is resistance on the part of the individual, or when such efforts seem likely to result in insecurity for the teacher, pupil or administrator. One of the real problems in moving toward more effective evaluation is the atmosphere of insecurity which accompanies most efforts to evaluate. For the most part, this atmosphere is a hold-over from the "efficiency rating" concept of evaluation.

To many people, evaluation is synonymous with measurement for the sole purpose of rating teachers. This, it must be admitted, is a concept which held sway for many years, and which all too frequently still prevails. The net result has been misunderstanding and mistrust of evaluation. Teachers were never considered essential to the evaluative process; they were seldom actively involved in planning procedures or techniques of appraisal.

Readiness for cooperation in developing evaluation procedures and techniques can come only when all who are concerned with the outcomes of evaluation are voluntarily and actively involved in the process. Teacher resistance to evaluation of work going on in classrooms is largely a defense mechanism by which teachers hope to protect themselves from value judgments based on a personal frame of reference by the supervisor or principal, rather than on an objective collection of descriptive facts. Mistrust and misunderstanding of the purposes evaluation serves have created artificial barriers between teachers and supervisors, teachers and principals, teachers and pupils. These barriers hinder the development of new techniques of evaluation.

Readiness for, and cooperation in, evaluation are necessary to the successful gathering of base-line data. Evaluation will have meaning, and the mistrust will be reduced, only when evaluation is seen as an integral part of improvement programs. Readiness for cooperation in evaluation will be increased by the separation of the collection of descriptive data from the application of value judgments. If descriptive data are secured and made the basis for a cooperative application of values, much mistrust should be eliminated.

Lack of Suitable Materials and Techniques

Those who would evaluate in terms of changes in behavior are faced with the necessity of developing new techniques and

of adapting techniques developed in other fields. Gathering of "before, during, and after" data requires that *changes* in behavior which an improvement program is to bring about be defined precisely and objectively. Otherwise we have no clues as to where to look for the situations in which professional staff and pupils can be expected to display the types of behavior we want to evaluate. When we know the kind of evidence we want to gather, the job of selecting and developing evaluative instruments and procedures becomes clearer. Evaluation cannot be accomplished by resorting to use of a battery of achievement tests given "before and after." So many variables are involved that numerous kinds of data must be gathered. And yet there is a dearth of readily available evaluative instruments. This fact tends to discourage many faculties from attempting a large-scale evaluation of their curriculum. Materials and know-how are essential, it is true; but we learn by doing, and it is often necessary that we develop techniques to meet particular situations. We cannot wait until someone has printed a battery of "improvement tests," for even if it were possible to do so, these, like all "standardized" tests, would not be adapted to the needs and purposes of a particular situation.

We are certainly not without experience in developing means of gathering evidence. For example, observation has been employed by educators for years as a technique in gathering data; although efforts to use observation have, until recently, been crude. Too often we have attempted to observe without knowing what we are looking for, and without any attempt to check the validity and reliability of our observations. Meanwhile, social psychologists interested in both individual and group behavior have made tremendous strides in improving observation as a technique for gathering evidence as to social behavior. Many of the refinements of the observational method seem full of promise for education.

The California Cooperative Study of In-Service Education has spent considerable time in the development, tryout and refinement of an observation guide as a means of securing reliable evidence. Steps which have been used in developing the guide may be of interest:

After exploring other techniques for gathering evidence of changes which might be attributed to an improvement program, the planning committee of the study concluded that

observation had possibilities for gathering a wealth of descriptive factual data, provided observation of teaching-learning situations could be made more objective.

Planning committee members spent considerable time observing all kinds of teaching-learning situations in an effort to identify possible areas which could be observed and categories necessary to recording of data in these areas.

Several tentative categories of observations were developed. Currently, observation teams in the cooperating schools are giving the tentative guide a tryout, preparatory to a second revision.

We need to explore new techniques of evaluation and to refine old ones. Among the many techniques for gathering evidence which currently are being adapted and extended are projective techniques, sociometric techniques, attitude surveys, case studies, logs, non-directive interviews, sound recordings and group observations.

Effective use of such techniques depends upon cooperation and good rapport. Unless the evaluative concepts involved in selection, construction and adaptation of such techniques respect these qualities, there can be no assurance that these techniques will reach deeply into human motivations. Without a genuine sense of security on the part of persons involved in the improvement program, these techniques cannot be used with success.

Problems of Objectivity

The concept of objectivity is often a block to the development and utilization of significant ways of gathering data. Objectivity is frequently discussed in terms which tend to identify it with stringent statistical tabulation and analysis. However, data need not all be quantitative in nature. Data gathered by means of logs, interviews, recordings, projective techniques and observation are not so adaptable to quantitative treatment as data gathered by some standardized instrument. Still, much data of this type can be treated in a quantitative manner. Much of the life and meaning of some data, however, can be destroyed in trying to express it in terms of standard deviations, quartiles and means. Development of the case history as a valid and reliable technique in medicine, social work and psychology indicates that data need not be reported in terms of numbers or scores to be useful for evaluative purposes.

Statistical techniques are useful in education, but they are frequently inadequate for purposes of recording and analyzing some of the kinds of data that must be gathered as evidence of change. Until all available techniques for securing and handling data, even though some of the techniques may seem not to rely on conventional statistical analyses, are considered and explored, there is little chance for growth in our concept and practice of evaluation. In other areas—psychology, economics, medicine, anthropology, sociology—qualitative data are being utilized as effectively as quantitative data. “Depth” studies, the intensive study of a limited number of cases rather than a random sampling of thousands, are becoming a useful procedure.



Several guiding principles for evaluating curriculum improvement programs may be derived from this chapter.

1. Evaluation should be planned and carried out in terms of the specific purposes of the curriculum improvement program.

2. Purposes should be precisely defined in terms of changes to be achieved.

3. The purposes of a sound curriculum improvement program evolve continuously. A high degree of flexibility is therefore necessary in evaluation activities.

4. Evaluation should be concerned with both ends and means.

5. Decisions concerning the purposes, procedures and data to be collected should be determined cooperatively by all personnel involved.

6. Evaluation is a complex process that should be based upon an abundance of evidence obtained in many ways.

7. Evaluation procedures should not be limited to a single device or instrument. Any procedures are appropriate which provide pertinent and reliable evidence regarding change.

8. Measuring and counting are not sufficient. The essential nature of evaluation is the application of value judgments to data.

9. Evaluation should be an integral part of the curriculum improvement program.

CHAPTER VII

Frontiers of Curriculum Improvement

THIS book has set forth many concepts, principles and practices of forward-looking curriculum programs. The object of this chapter is to emphasize and to delineate further some of these promising frontiers of curriculum improvement that are being pushed forward in many schools today.

Six frontiers of curriculum improvement may be identified for special consideration. Several of these areas are receiving much attention in American school systems while others are in initial stages of exploration and development. These frontiers may be thought of as key provinces to which modern programs of curriculum improvement in our schools and communities may pioneer the way.

Improving democratic group processes and educational leadership.

Using what we know about learning and growth.

Working with the community and using its resources in planning instructional programs for children and youth.

Improving curriculum planning and teaching.

Evaluating the curriculum and teaching.

Educating for international understanding and the defense of freedom.

The term "frontiers" captures some of the spirit of modern schools—enterprising, forward-looking, meeting new needs, changing with the demands of the times. We believe the dynamic of education will be found, not in continuation of or return to traditional, inappropriate patterns, but in the exploration and development of educational frontiers for the world of today and tomorrow.

Improving Democratic Group Processes

Democratic educational leadership is widely accepted as a goal to be achieved. In addition to the lip service paid to this ideal, widespread practice in school systems and substantial research underwrite a democratic approach to administration, supervision and teaching. We are on the threshold of a renaissance in education which promises needed curriculum improvement through democratic group processes. These processes are appropriate in classrooms, faculty groups, central office staffs, professional associations, school boards, citizens' committees, and colleges and universities that prepare personnel for service in schools.

Democratic group processes are based on the conviction that everyone who is affected by a policy, a decision or a program should share in its making. Group processes may be used effectively to accomplish several purposes.

Establish educational policies.

Clarify educational aims.

Evolve organization for school improvement.

Identify problems and questions for consideration by a school group.

Plan, conduct and evaluate experimental programs.

Select and develop instructional aids and curriculum materials.

Carry out teacher-pupil planning in classrooms and schools.

Enlist the help of lay citizens in curriculum planning and school improvement.

Establish cooperation with other agencies.

Plan faculty meetings and in-service programs.

Evaluate school programs.

Many factors make for success in democratic group work. Only a few can be mentioned here. The setting in which the meeting takes place is important. Seating arrangements should be informal so that people can see and talk directly with one another. The group should be small enough so that each member can know other members well and all can participate often in discussions.

Also of importance is the role of the group leader or chairman. This person must be naturally friendly and alert, and must have faith in the democratic processes. His role is to help the group to establish common goals, to develop group oneness,

to plan a program of activities, to use available and appropriate resources, to find important things for each member to do and to make progress toward agreed-upon goals.

Process Affected by Leadership Concept

Group process is affected also by the concept of leadership that operates. Leadership is not solely a prerogative of age, status or tenure. It does not rest with the chairman alone, or with an eminent person in the group, or with any particular individual. The role of leader and that of follower may interchange as a group develops its plans, works on its problems and moves toward solutions. Leadership is a function which belongs to all participants and may, in a democratic group, pass from one member to any other member or members who can make a needed and significant contribution.

Another factor which influences success in democratic group work is the importance of action upon the suggestions and recommendations of the group. It is desirable that those who have administrative authority to facilitate action should participate as active members of the group. If such status persons cannot be present, however, it is important that they be willing to understand, accept and implement insofar as possible recommendations made by the group. Employment of the veto by non-participating individuals with authority can easily make group work wasted effort.

Where group processes operate effectively the role of leadership, whether in the classroom, in the individual school or in the school system as a whole, includes the responsibility of arranging opportunities for persons who have a stake in the educational program to think, plan and act cooperatively. Likewise, where such processes operate well the teacher, principal, supervisor, curriculum specialist, superintendent and lay citizen all share in making policies and plans.

Additional references for reading which may assist in the improvement of democratic group processes are included in the appended bibliography, "Readings on Curriculum Improvement."

Using What We Know About Learning and Growth

Another frontier of curriculum improvement is that of using more effectively what we now know about human growth and development. Through the years a wealth of research and desir-

able practice has accumulated which points the way toward improvement in this respect. Much of what we know is being neglected, however, in actual educational programs, for a variety of reasons. This section will discuss briefly some of the things we know about learning and growth and will suggest promising ways of using these in curriculum improvement programs. Several principles related to learning and growth are affirmed.

A stimulating, wholesome environment is essential for effective learning.

Recognition should be given the purposes, interests and needs of pupils in planning and carrying out learning experiences. No two pupils are alike and therefore the curriculum must recognize individual differences.

Open-mindedness and critical thinking can be taught.

Democratic procedures result in more satisfying and effective learning.

Learners should participate in planning for dynamic experiences which use a variety of appropriate school and community resources.

Continuous evaluation with pupils, with professional associates and with lay citizens should be an integral part of the learning process.

People "learn what they live" and in turn "live what they learn."

We know much about how learning takes place; about physical and mental health; about fostering wholesome personality and character development; about citizenship and economic education; about improving professional preparation of school personnel; about in-service education of teachers and others; about enlisting the participation of parents and other lay citizens; about improving the school and community as a learning laboratory. Nevertheless many barriers to using what we know about learning and growth lie within the professional education group itself.

Chapter III has discussed several reasons for slow progress in making curriculum changes. Some of the barriers are found in the attitudes, the traditions and the financial conditions of the community in which the school operates. To overcome these barriers a few steps may be suggested.

Include more emphasis on learning and growth in pre-service education of professional personnel.

Arrange opportunities for school people and lay citizens to study pupil growth and development in study groups, educational conferences, in-service courses and workshops, faculty meetings and parent-teacher association programs.

Make careful case studies of pupils in classroom groups.

Conduct action research on learning and growth in classroom, school and community situations.

Encourage promising practices and experimentation with learning procedures in schools by providing time and funds, needed materials and equipment, praise and support.

Build public understanding and confidence through participation, interpretation and good public relations programs.

Use the individual parent-teacher conference as a means of reporting to parents, securing their suggestions and advice and enlisting their cooperation in the educational program.

Seek the help of pupils themselves in determining their interests, problems and needs and their suggestions for improvement of the learning situation.

Perhaps this brief analysis is enough to emphasize the importance of using what we know about learning and growth in curriculum improvement. In the bibliography, "Readings on Curriculum Improvement," many of the best references in this field are listed.

Working with the Community and Using Its Resources

This is perhaps the most neglected frontier of curriculum improvement, yet it offers great promise. Participation by lay citizens in curriculum planning and program operation is the key to public confidence, understanding and support. Lay citizens can and should help in a variety of ways.

Clarifying and Stating the Educational Aims of the School. The schools belong to all the people of a community; not to the professional groups alone, or to the pupils alone, or to laymen alone. They all have a stake in the program and they all should share in determining educational purposes.

Planning the Curriculum. Some citizens are most helpful in such planning because of their sincere interest and background of experience. They should serve on school boards and curriculum councils and committees, and with citizens' advisory and study groups.

Evaluating the School Program. Lay individuals are in excellent position to help with the appraisal of educational pro-

grams. With the advent of the cooperative school survey and the development of local appraisal procedures, the lay citizen in many localities is rendering outstanding service in evaluation. Citizens' committees, most of them constructive and helpful, are working effectively in many American communities.

Carrying Out the Educational Program. Every community has a variety of human resources which can extend the effectiveness of the school program. People with special talents and skills, interesting vocational backgrounds, know-how, and contacts in business, industry, community agencies and institutions are an important source of help in vitalizing the school program. Through field trips to their places of work, through interviews with them, through their services in schools and classrooms, pupils and teachers, as well as the instructional program, may benefit greatly.

Developing the Community School. Life should be better for everyone in a community because of its schools. The school program should serve the needs of children, youth and adults. In order to achieve the major purpose of today's schools—to improve community life—it is absolutely essential for school people to work with the community, to use its resources and to serve the community through the educational program. Widespread lay participation is necessary to the planning and conducting of a genuine community school.

Understanding Individual Pupils. Through individual parent-teacher conferences, parent-teacher association affairs, and home contacts, teachers and school administrators come to a better understanding of pupils. Through these contacts with parents they also discover community resources which may be useful in curriculum planning and school improvement.

Working with the community and using its resources have received much emphasis recently from national organizations such as the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and professional associations such as the National Education Association, the American Association of School Administrators and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Also statewide programs of citizen participation such as those sponsored by the Governor's Fact-Finding Commission on Education in Connecticut and the Florida Citizens' Committee on Education have demonstrated the effectiveness of lay participation.

It should be mentioned here that not all citizens' groups now operating in American communities are concerned with the best

interests of the schools.¹ Some of these groups spearhead organized attacks that would destroy effective educational leadership and teaching in public schools. They receive encouragement and assistance from "organized groups" which operate under imposing and confusing names such as "Friends of the Public Schools" and the "National Council for American Education." Among their leaders are well-known operators who have no connection with education or schools, but who thrive on controversy regarding the schools. Through publications and other means, sincere and well-meaning people are sometimes "taken in," especially if for one reason or another they are dissatisfied with or concerned about their schools. Such materials and assistance are of course welcomed in some communities by individuals and groups who wish to undermine public education and the rights and freedoms of citizens of a democracy. The activities and motives of organizations and individuals which are attacking public schools have been discussed in the press, in some magazines, in investigations conducted by the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education of the National Education Association and in the book by Arnold Forster entitled *A Measure of Freedom*, which is listed in the bibliography of "Readings on Curriculum Improvement." It is clear now that "organized attacks" on public education and especially on sound curriculum improvement programs are under way. Teachers, school administrators and citizens interested in the welfare of America and its schools will do well to look into the real sources of such attacks which are apparently becoming more prevalent and persistent.

Improving Curriculum Planning and Teaching

During the twentieth century we have witnessed the birth of a new world that is vastly different from the world of a generation ago. The United States as a nation has emerged from a predominantly rural society with little world-wide influence to become a great world power. We have experienced two world wars with their accompanying destruction of human and natural resources. At the same time we have made tremendous technological advances. Some of these developments, depending on their use, may destroy civilization or provide higher standards of peaceful living for the peoples of the globe. Speed

¹ Hulburd, David. *This Happened in Pasadena*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951.

of transportation and instantaneous communication have erased traditional barriers between peoples and have made possible and necessary a "one world" concept. We are well advanced in the air and atomic age. Truly we are living in a new world, simultaneously tragic and filled with promise.

Changes in our civilization have brought new educational needs and demands. But our educational aims and programs often have not kept pace with these demands. Our educational programs are in many instances far removed from the needs of our times. Many schools seem to be committed to educational aims and processes which no longer are pertinent or useful and which are largely ineffective in guiding a dynamic educational program. Major aims of many schools today seem to be those of mastery of information, much of it obsolete and useless in modern living, and development of so-called fundamental skills as ends in themselves without relationship to great humanitarian and social purposes. Information and skills are essential, of course, but they should be taught as means to wholesome ends.

An increasing number of schools are clarifying their educational aims and extending these to include more dynamic purposes. Many systems are formulating these aims cooperatively, stating them in simple language and implementing them in school practice. Clearly defined, dynamic educational aims serve four important functions related to curriculum improvement.

To appraise the current educational program.

To set the direction for school improvement.

To guide the progress of the improvement program.

To provide the bases for teaching, administration and evaluation.

Without direction, as judged by the objectives which we set for educational programs, our efforts toward school improvement often will prove futile or of little consequence.

School and community groups looking toward improvement of their educational programs will do well to turn their attention to a consideration of their present educational aims. If they have no clearly stated aims, preparation of a statement of aims may well be made a first order of business. This need not take a great amount of time but it should involve all concerned—pupils, teachers, administrators, parents and other lay citizens. Deliberation should continue sufficiently long to allow

for arrival at tentative aims which are accepted and at agreements for implementing these aims. Such tentative aims can be clarified further as the school improvement program progresses.

One of the most important over-all aims of the educational program should be the *improvement of community living*. In the local community we find the grass roots of democracy: in the family, in the church, in the school and in the agencies of government and community welfare. Should these roots die, our chances for maintaining a strong democratic nation and for achieving the "one world" ideal would die with them. Each local community should have a school that releases the creative talents and abilities in all whom it would educate for service to mankind and for the building of a better world.

Objectives or aims agreed upon should affect all teaching, at all grade levels, in all subjects and educational activities. They should become guideposts for the learning program, for administrative arrangements, for educational decisions and for school-community relationships. Educational aims in tune with the times and the needs of a democratic society and its citizens might well emphasize the following principles.

Through our schools we should underwrite the defense of freedom and peace. Without permanent and abiding peace, little hope can remain for the survival of civilization and of mankind. Democratic institutions and freedom for the individual can best be assured in a peaceful world. Our schools should therefore teach for international understanding and for appreciation of the role of, and moral commitment to, preservation and extension of the United Nations. In order to accomplish this we should teach for better human relations in our own communities, and for the understanding of all races, nationalities and creeds among our citizenry. We should explore and perfect the procedures which are basic to a sound intercultural and intergroup education. It is clear that the foundations of peace are built in the minds and hearts of men. This emphasizes the need for educational aims which will strengthen freedom and peace.

Through our schools we should help conserve, rebuild and promote the wise use of our natural and human resources. These resources have been depleted at an alarming rate through waste, war and neglect. Without their conservation the United States cannot maintain and improve the standard of living of its citizens. Nor is there reason to believe that without such conservation on our part can we hope to raise the standard of

living for other peoples of the world. Depletion of natural resources and degradation of human resources go hand in hand. Through our educational programs, therefore, we should teach what we now know about conservation and we must discover new means of preserving and rebuilding our resources. This cannot be a matter of book learning alone. Such a movement should enlist also the fresh interest and enthusiasm of children and youth in activities and projects which in themselves rebuild and conserve resources.

Through our schools we should teach democratic citizenship by practicing it with children and youth and among ourselves. The only effective way to learn the ideals, processes and skills of democratic citizenship is through satisfying experience with these. Schools have an unprecedented opportunity and a pressing responsibility to provide opportunities for such experience. The best way to convince other peoples of the merits of the democratic way of life is to provide a great demonstration of its effectiveness in our own land. If we undertake seriously to carry out this aim, it means far-reaching changes in our teaching and in the administration of schools. It means that teachers will work cooperatively with pupils in planning learning experiences and activities. Faculty groups will share in policy making and in decisions which affect the welfare of all. Lay citizens will participate in curriculum planning and in the operation of the school. There will be increasing and more effective use of the democratic ways of working now so effectively carried out by a growing number of teachers and school administrators.

In our schools we should concern ourselves more with the physical health and welfare of every pupil. Children and youth should be better off physically because they have attended school. Until this aim is taken seriously and accepted on a par with other educational aims the reverse probably will be true. To achieve this aim requires increased health services in schools, more adequate physical education and health instruction, greater attention to physical defects, improvement of school facilities to eliminate health and safety hazards, and reorganization of the school day and year to include adequate time for recreation, body-building and health-giving activities. Outdoor education, camping as a part of the curriculum, youth hosteling and the like are educational frontiers of better physical and mental health.

In our schools we should make greater effort to foster emotional stability and mental health. The surest thing in our modern world is change. We must prepare youth to accept change as a normal process and not to regard it as a threat to their security and emotional stability. Our complex society

generates emotional instability and poor mental health. Certainly the school should serve as a positive force for mental health. But for many pupils our educational procedures and arrangements foster insecurity, discouragement and worse. To take this aim seriously and revamp our educational programs accordingly is a most pressing requirement for school improvement.

Through our schools we should teach useful information and skills for living in a democratic society. At the present time the aim of teaching fundamental facts and skills seems to overshadow other educational aims in most American schools. In fact, this may be the sole aim of schools in which little more than lip service is being given to most other obligations to children and youth. More tragic perhaps is the fact that the skills and information taught seem to be made ends in themselves rather than means to ends.

It is true that the citizen of a democracy needs to be highly skilled in reading, speaking, writing and working cooperatively with others. He needs also accurate information about his world and an understanding of his heritage. Likewise he needs to develop abilities and skills required for a vocation, for satisfying use of leisure time, for wise buying and consuming and for getting along well with others. The aim of transmitting useful information and skills is, therefore, a worthy educational objective. But we recognize also that this is only one of several aims of education. If other pressing needs are neglected, our children and youth will receive only a partial education dangerously lacking in orientation and purpose and in the elements of physical and mental health.

Through education each pupil should be enabled to discover and to accept wholesome values for the guidance of his life. Perhaps this is a summary of all other aims. It is concerned with the ideals, attitudes and values that come through an education that is designed to underwrite freedom and peace, to conserve and rebuild resources, to develop democratic citizenship, to recognize physical and mental health needs and to teach useful information and skills. A school improvement program will likely fall short of its over-all purposes, however, if it neglects to help each pupil recognize and build into his character the moral and spiritual values that give direction and purpose to life. This educational objective is of such importance that it should no longer be left entirely to chance or to institutions other than the school.

These proposed classifications of some of the educational aims for our schools need to be spelled out in much greater detail. They need to be supplemented by indications of the specific behaviors we believe should result from an educational program that seriously attempts to achieve them. This is the job that needs to be done by schools and communities everywhere as they move ahead with curriculum improvement.

There is now a wealth of supplementary material in the field of curriculum improvement that should be read by school people and interested lay citizens. References to these materials are included under the heading, "Improving Curriculum Planning and Teaching," in the list of "Readings on Curriculum Improvement."

Evaluating the Curriculum and Teaching

Evaluation should have as its sole purpose the improvement of the school program. The frontier of evaluation has been quite unevenly explored and developed. Measurement of pupil results through paper-and-pencil tests covering required subject matter has been greatly extended. Other areas of the frontier have been relatively neglected. A current trend in evaluation is to state desirable objectives in terms of definite behavioral changes in the learners and to evaluate the extent and kind of such changes. Procedures and methods employed will be not only those of refined paper-and-pencil tests, but also those of anecdotal records; diaries and log books; check lists and the like. Even more recent are various types of self-evaluation. Much effort formerly devoted to evaluation of others is now employed in cooperative and self-evaluation procedures.

What Evaluation Includes

Use of the term *evaluation* instead of the former one of *measurement* signifies an attempt on the part of educators to widen and enrich the concept of appraisal. Measurement tends to limit us to that which can be measured, whereas evaluation admits all measurable items plus the more intangible yet highly significant value judgments.

An adequate basis for evaluation will depend upon a comprehensive statement of the guiding objectives of education. These aims may be determined inductively, but they must be established, with provision for change and growth. These major objectives also should be described in terms of desired behavior

changes. A major function of evaluation is to determine whether the results of the program coincide with behavior changes sought.

Troyer and Pace² have set forth these steps in evaluation:

1. Formulating the general objectives.
2. Defining general objectives in terms of the specific behavior they imply.
3. Identifying sources of evidence that can be used in observing such behavior.
4. Developing methods for getting evidence.
5. Interpreting results in the light of the objectives.

Appraisal consists in finding out to what extent and also how we are achieving our purposes. The purpose of such appraisal is a constructive one—to find out *how* we can do a better job. Doing a better job signifies not only getting improved results but also realizing more satisfying ways of working together in attaining these results. In cooperative appraisal, the *process* is important and belongs within the scope of evaluation quite as much as the product.

Evaluating the Work of the Individual Classroom

The work of the classroom includes all that the children and the teacher accomplish together toward achieving for themselves and their total community the aims of democratic education. It comprehends their use of resources outside the classroom—in fact, it includes their total cooperative effort. Evaluation is inseparable from the educative process. It is an integral and continuous part of all teaching and learning.

The teacher and children plan together what they will do and how they should go about it. They test their plans by trying them out. As they take each new step, they have to determine how far they have come. They have to decide what are the best ways of getting where they want to go. They have to evaluate their experiences as they proceed. They change their plans in the light of what happens.

As teacher and children work together, it will become clear to the group that they need to keep various records. Each child may want to keep his own individual notes of certain learning activities. The teacher, also, may want to keep a running account. In addition, there should be group records in many in-

² Troyer, M. E., and Pace, C. R. *Evaluation in Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

stances. The records kept in any case will be those that the group and its members deem essential in their planning and evaluating.

Usually the teacher will need records other than those he may want to share with the children. For example, the teacher may have conferences with other teachers who guide or will guide these same boys and girls. He also may have conferences with the parents of these children. The teacher does not make the evaluation for the parents and the other teachers, however. Rather they, too, submit their observations, and a cooperative evaluation is tentatively formulated and then revised when new data are at hand. All evaluating should be a cooperative enterprise in which all who are concerned with the outcome will engage. Only so can the process, as well as the end results, yield widest benefits for the children, their families and the school community.

Evaluating the Work of the Individual School

The individual school and its community should be the unitary basis for curriculum improvement. The central office of the local system can best discharge its duties by freeing and helping the individual school to work out with its own community a continuing program for improving instruction. Whether textbooks are used, and if so which ones and how; what, when and how community resources play a part; what shall constitute the common learnings and the special offerings; these and similar problems should be explored by the individual school.

Some advantages in freeing the individual school to work on its own problems may be cited.

It fosters local school initiative and creativeness. Readiness of one school to move ahead is not thwarted. If education is to progress, if we are to encourage experimentation, change and growth, there must be opportunity to work on the frontier.

It encourages adaptation to the school neighborhood and community. Each school-community has its own needs and purposes. One may require a nursery school for the children of working mothers. Another school-community may have no such need. One school-community may have resources for abundant use of outdoor recreational facilities. Another may lack such facilities.

It strengthens democratic group processes in the individual school-community. Group thinking and group effort are needed.

Pupils, teachers, parents and other lay representatives need to *know* that their planning, their purposes and their appraisals count toward the improvement of their school. They need assurance that their community will not be held back by administrative red tape or the unreadiness or lack of need in another school-community.

Just as it is an inseparable part of the improvement program, evaluation is also of utmost importance in and for the individual school. Just as the problems to solve and the procedures to follow will be selected by the individual school-community group, so will particular instruments of evaluation be chosen.

In the discussion of the individual classroom it has been noted that the evaluative measures and the records that each group decides to use will be determined by the purposes which it holds and wishes to further. The most important test of an individual school is how well it is interpreting and achieving its purposes. Are its purposes democratically evolved? Is the base of participation sufficiently representative? Is there adequate provision for obtaining these expressions of needs and interests? Is there modern and efficient machinery for carrying them out?

When such evaluative methods are in effect, there will be less comparison of one school with another. Each school will use its own instruments of appraisal—whether for functional arithmetic or for developing intercultural attitudes. In a word, the emphasis increasingly will be upon self-appraisal.

Evaluation has been given considerable emphasis throughout this book. All chapters contribute to the bases for effective evaluation, while Chapter VI deals with the problems of evaluating school improvement programs. Other helpful references on evaluating the curriculum and teaching will be found in the bibliography of "Readings on Curriculum Improvement."

Education for International Understanding

A most important frontier of curriculum improvement in these critical times is that of education for international understanding and for the defense of freedom. A whole generation of young people may grow up in a world beset by tensions, mobilization and military preparations. The defense of America and the preservation and extension of freedom in the world are a long-term task that will require strong, sound educational programs in our schools.

It is conceivable that curriculum improvement programs now

under way in American schools may be postponed, curtailed or even eliminated in a war economy. A wiser course, however, is to move ahead with curriculum improvement in every school system in our nation and thereby to strengthen the foundations of freedom and democracy. We believe this book will help school people and lay citizens to take forward rather than backward steps.

There are hopeful signs that leaders in education, government service, civic life and the military forces are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of education during periods of emergency. Professional organizations have taken strong stands on priorities for education. The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools recently called upon Americans to continue their fight for better schools during the period of mobilization facing our nation. Many outstanding Americans have responded with forthright statements. General Dwight D. Eisenhower³ has put it strongly in these words:

The American public school is the principal training ground for informed American citizenship; what is taught in the classroom today shapes the sort of country we shall have decades hence. To neglect our school system would be a crime against the future. Such neglect could well be more disastrous to all our freedoms than the most formidable armed assault on our physical defenses.

The lowering totalitarian menace on the international horizon must not blur our perspective. America will arm itself and survive. But the gravity of our problems and the resolution required to end them emphasize again that our chief resource is the American citizen's intelligence and understanding, readiness and capacity to do his full duty.

When real peace is achieved—as it surely will be, however distant it may now seem—this will be a nation of better citizens, more conscious of their blessings, more resolute in their responsibilities, more dedicated to their freedoms, if even in these crisis days we are vigilant that our school system continues to improve in physical facilities, in the caliber of its teaching staff, in education for citizenship.

Enduring peace must be won in the minds and hearts of men through educational means. American education's continuing responsibility is to prepare people simultaneously for the defense of freedom and for living in a world where there is abiding peace. Nothing less than the best possible education is adequate for such a task.

³ *School Life*, "Continue the Fight for Better Schools." *School Life* 33:34; December 1950. (Washington, D. C.: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.)

Readings on Curriculum Improvement

Publications listed in this bibliography have been selected because they help to implement the principles of curriculum improvement and the "Frontiers" presented in Chapter VII. Most of these are recent publications. The bibliography should prove helpful to teachers, supervisors, administrators and other persons concerned with planning and carrying out improvement programs. Also the list should be useful in selection of references for libraries in schools and colleges. Further, the list may be useful to college and university instructors of curriculum, supervision and administration in making up bibliographies for both pre-service and in-service groups and programs.

Improving Democratic Group Processes

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